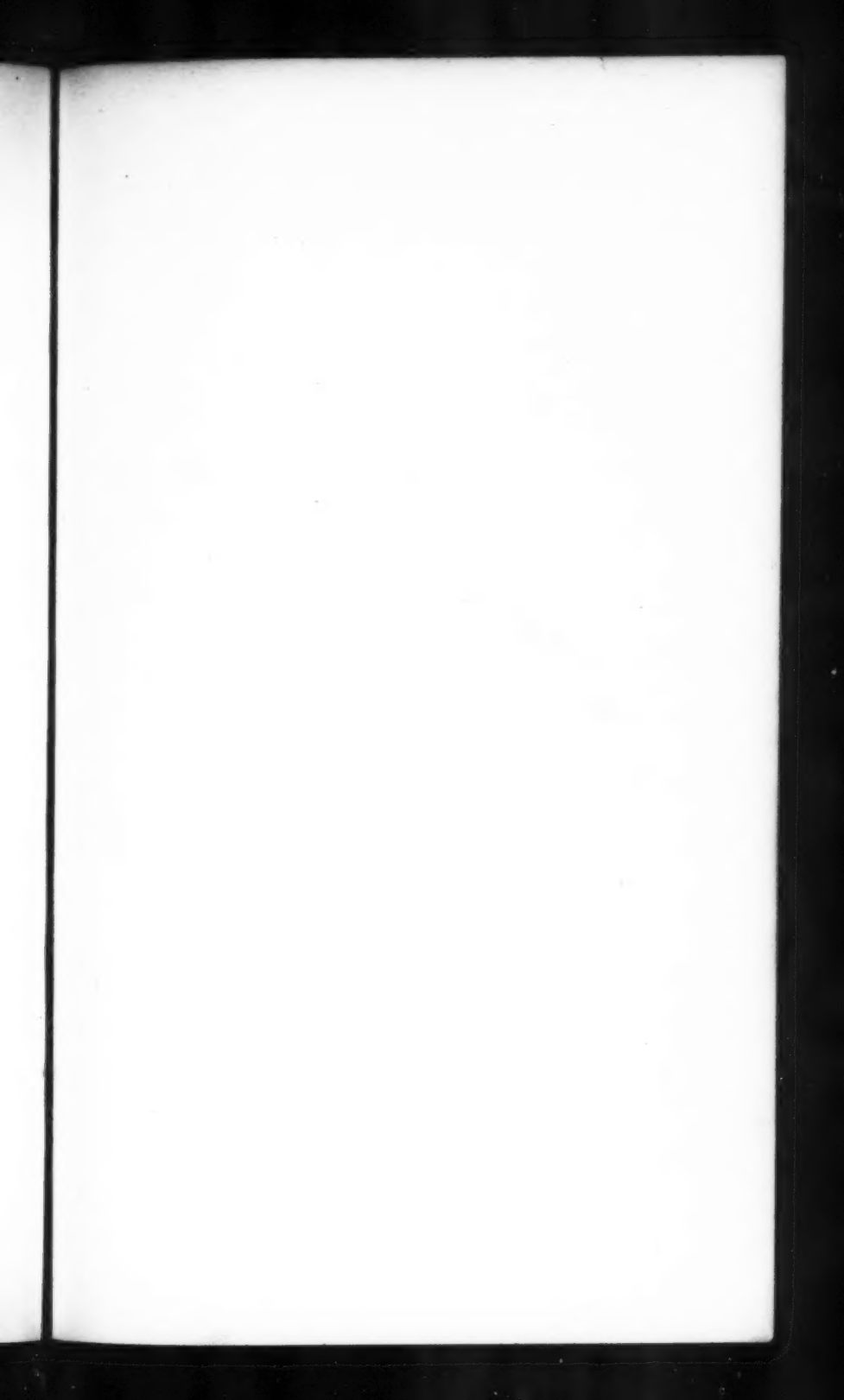


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Engraved by John Sartain. Phila.

D. F. Sarmiento



I. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

SENOR D. F. SARMIENTO.

THE following sketch of an illustrious citizen of the Argentine Republic, Colonel DON DOMINGO FAUSTINO SARMIENTO, has been condensed from a biography now in preparation, which the richness of the materials has unexpectedly swelled from a brief memoir originally prepared for this Journal. But the record has its natural place here, as Colonel Sarmiento takes rank with the first educational men of the world, his great work having been performed in the face of obstacles which no other known educationist has had to encounter. Its scene was in a country that had for ages been demoralized by the vices of the Spanish colonial system, and was begun before the country was freed from the frightful tyrannies that held the most prominent parts of it in subjection after the Spanish yoke had been thrown off, and it had won its independence and abolished chattel slavery.

Col. Sarmiento was born in 1811, in the Argentine Republic, in the province of San Juan, on the eastern slope of the Andes. He was descended from two ancient families who had become impoverished in circumstances, one of which had been distinguished for more than a century for literary ability, which the subject of our notice inherited in a remarkable degree. His precocious childhood was fostered at home, and also in a school directed by a remarkable teacher, who knew how to give his pupils full possession of their faculties, because he cultivated their thinking powers. He remained in this school for nine years of his childhood, and the rest of his education was almost wholly self-acquired, though he enjoyed the advantage of the assistance and conversation of two of his relatives, one a Dominican friar, and the other an active participant in the war of Independence. This clerical uncle's assistance in the study of latin, and his conversations with his nephew, in a solitary residence in the pastoral region of San Luis, where the boy of fifteen opened a school of eight pupils of twenty years of age, who had

never before had the opportunity to learn to read, although belonging to wealthy families, was a fine advantage. At sixteen he made reading his profession. The French, English, Italian and Portuguese languages, gave him a wide range. History was his favorite reading.

In 1829, when 18 years of age, he took up arms against Quiroga and Rosas. He went to Chili in 1831, took lodgings in the house of his relative, Don Domingo Sarmiento, Governor of the Department of Putaendo, and from there went out to the village of Los Andes, where he directed a municipal school, the first ever established in that village of 20,000 inhabitants. His next enterprise was the opening of a store in Pocuro, with a little capital furnished by his friends. In 1833, he walked to Valparaiso, and obtained a situation as a merchant's clerk, earning an ounce a month, most of which he spent in books. He afterwards went to Copiapo as superintendent of mines, still employing every leisure moment in reading.

In 1836, he returned to his native city of San Juan, and in company with some other able young men, founded a College for young ladies in 1838. It only lasted two years, but gave valuable results, as evidenced by the superiority of the young ladies who attended it, now the best cultivated matrons of that cultivated city. In 1839, in connection with the same young men who assisted him in the school, he founded *La Zonda*, a periodical which was afterwards suspended by order of Governor Benavides, who put S. Sarmiento in prison, although the only topics treated were morals, public education, the cultivation of the mulberry tree, mines, literature, &c. In November, 1841, still persecuted by Benavides, he went again to Chili, happily for that country, and entered the College of the Dr. Zapata, as teacher, and after took in charge the Lyceum of Santiago, in conjunction with Don Vicente Fidel Lopez. He also established *El Progreso*, a daily Journal, devoted to public interests and the elevation of society. In 1842, he again directed his steps to the Argentine Republic, to join Gen. La Madrid at Cordova, but in his passage over the mountains met the defeated army retreating to Chili. He was instrumental in saving the lives of nearly all the fugitives, among whom were young volunteers from the first families of Buenos Ayres and the northern provinces of the Argentine Republic.

He wished at that time to visit Europe on an educational mission, prior to the establishment of a Normal School, but Don Manuel Montt, then Minister of Chili, advised him to establish the school first, which he did, and directed it for three years in the most able

manner. He was then commissioned by the Government to go to Europe and America to study the subject. The Normal School which he founded in Chili, was the first institution of the kind in America, either North or South. One of his biographers has described with much minuteness the mode in which he taught every branch, and it is very striking to observe that, unaided and alone, he had thought out and practised all the most improved methods known at present in our most advanced schools. His moral influence was of the highest kind. The office of Schoolmaster was a very humble one in S. America, until he exalted it by his example and his eloquent word for it. He treated his pupils with great respect and consideration, and inspired them with the utmost confidence and enthusiasm for himself. They carried on the work of teaching during his absence, and after his return he was enabled to put them into valuable offices, such as Visitors of Schools, Assistants in Teachers' Institutes, &c. During his absence, he visited France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Holland, England, Canada and the United States. Every educational establishment was thrown open to his inspection in those parts of Europe which he visited, and he became acquainted with the most distinguished men. One of his most valuable and interesting works, "Civilization and Barbarism," was translated into French after he visited France, and reviewed in the *Revue des deux Mondes*, very ably, which added much éclat to his visit.

In England he met with Mr. Horace Mann's Seventh Report, the account of his own visitation of European schools, and on coming to this country sought his acquaintance and made himself conversant with the Common School System of Education. He studied the documents upon the subject, and conferred closely with Mr. Mann upon the workings of the system, which enabled him on his return to Chili to introduce it there. The government published his work upon Popular Education, embodying the results of his observations. No such work had ever appeared in the Spanish language, and its merits are surpassed in no language. After a devotion of nearly twenty years of his life to education, public and private, in Chili, during which time Don Manuel Montt became President of that Republic, and a still more efficient aid to Mr. Sarmiento from that circumstance, he returned to the Argentine Republic. He expresses in his writings many obligations to Don Manuel Montt, but some of his biographers assert that Don Manuel Montt was partly indebted to Señor Sarmiento's brilliant pen for that supreme position, and it is well known that Señor S. was the spring of all movements for the

education of the people, an idea which never had dawned upon a Chilean mind, certainly not upon the government, until Señor Sarmiento presented it. Indeed, when it was first suggested by him that the laborers, the peons, should be educated, they exclaimed in dismay, "What! teach the laboring class to read! what confusion and demoralization would ensue!" Nothing daunted, Señor Sarmiento persevered. When he began, only 9,000 children of any class were educated in all classes of schools, private, fiscal, municipal, conventual, and those children of the upper classes, in a population of a million and a half. When he left it, the number had increased to 27,000, and many schools were erected in the departments. Yet Señor Sarmiento's name was never mentioned in any public decree, or even in connection with instruments which he had himself drawn up. Every thing was done in the name of the Government.

In 1851, he left Chili for a time to take up arms against Rosas, under General Urquiza, but tyranny still remained triumphant, and he returned to Chili. In addition to his educational labors, he had distinguished himself by his writings in Chili. For ten years he had converted the press of Chili into a battering ram against Rosas, pouring out a deluge of writings against his government and evil deeds. Many years after he had the satisfaction of writing upon the tyrant's own table and with the tyrant's own pen, the account of the battle of Casero which overthrew him, and in which Col. Sarmiento was an actor. It was not until 1855 that he finally left Chili for Buenos Ayres. He left there the institution of popular libraries, in which he had expended much of his own means, while all his emoluments in the country had been of the most meagre description. He had published his first *Didactic work upon methods of instruction; the Analysis of the methods of reading known and practised in Chili; the Manual of Ancient and Modern History*, (a translation); *Modern Discoveries*, (do.); *Civilization and Barbarism; Popular Education; Travels in Europe, America and Africa*; he had founded and carried on almost unaided the *Monitor of Schools*, a periodical of thirty-four pages, abounding in valuable treatises upon every subject of popular interest, and written an infinity of pamphlets for the instruction of the teachers and youth of Chili. The first Spelling book in which the correct sounds of the letters were given was also of his writing. He had banished from the schools such books as *The Temporal and the Eternal*, and *The Pains of Hell*, fit only to mislead the minds of youth and imbue them with the most absurd and extravagant ideas, and had replaced them

with *The Life of Jesus Christ, Morality in Deed and Life, The Conscience of a Child, The Life of Franklin, and The Why, or the Science of Things*. He had presented to the University of Chili, the first paper upon American Orthography that ever saw the light in Spanish America. He had established *La Cronica* and *Sad America*, devoted to immigration, liberty and government, and had contributed largely to *El Mercurio, Civilization*, and many other periodicals, European as well as American. In that twenty years no tyrant ever rose in Chili. He had established the first newspaper in Santiago, the residence of cultivated Chilians. Every public interest had responded to his touch. The press teemed with articles that were too marked to be mistaken for those of any other writer. The appropriations for roads had increased from \$20,000 per year to \$300,000, and Chili became unique for the beauty, multiplicity and preservation of its Macadamized roads. The Model Farm, where trees and plants of other countries were introduced, the Nautical School, the penitentiaries, the diligencies, immigration, the paving of streets, were all promoted with such vigor and pertinacity as to propitiate public opinion and conquer all opposition. The youth of the Republic were stimulated to the greatest exertions for their own improvement, and through his efforts even poetry left its old tracks and became adapted to present wants and sentiments.

But we must hasten to Buenos Ayres with Senor Sarmiento. In 1856 he petitioned the Government for leave to organize a Department of Schools. After conquering great opposition he succeeded, and was made Chief of the Department. He built the splendid Model School of Buenos Ayres. The citizens were stimulated to do the same in another parish. He opened fine schools and induced the citizens to become visitors and inspectors. He was made Senator and Minister of State, and in 1860 the Legislature of Buenos Ayres, by his advice, appropriated \$1,000,000 for schools. A line of school houses of the noblest construction stretches across the Pampas.

The memoir above mentioned describes minutely the public works he carried through by his zeal and influence; the redeeming of the isles of the Parana from the waters, making them sources of immense riches, the surveying and laying out the lands of Chivilcoi, &c., &c. In 1862 he returned to his native province of San Juan, where he was elected Governor. At that time, in 1863, one of the peasant chieftains invaded San Juan and five other neighboring provinces, and Col. Sarmiento, who had served ably in the wars of the Republic, rallied the forces of the province and annihilated Chacho and his bands at

the gates of the city. In 1862 he had laid the corner stone of a splendid educational edifice, which was not completed until after his arrival in this country, but which was finished and opened under the inspection of his friend Don Camilo Rojo, the present governor of San Juan, who in a short, interesting letter, has described the festival of its inauguration.* This was but one item in the efforts Col. Sarmiento made for education in San Juan, and he was also successful in opening the mines in that province, which promise great riches, and are already in successful operation.

In 1865 he came to this country as Minister Plenipotentiary, which office he also fills to Chili and Peru, which he visited in 1864.

Col. Sarmiento has been largely influential in promoting the political interests of his country. Indeed, it is very plain that it contains no man who understands our legislation so well. A careful perusal of his principal works shows the wide range of his knowledge and experience. No question incident to the growth or improvement of nations has failed to receive his closest attention and study.

In this country he occupies a great portion of his time on the subject of education. He is attracted by every Convention, meeting of School Superintendents, Institutes of Instruction, every Agricultural Fair, and Industrial Exhibition, and devotes much time in representing to his countrymen, by means of his brilliant pen, the advantages of education in every possible form which it can assume.

He has written and sent home a large edition of a Life of Lincoln, and a large volume called the *Schools the Basis of the Prosperity of the Republic*, which has found great acceptance there and in Europe. Laboulaye has commented upon it with much warmth in these words: "I am entirely of your opinion. The future of civilization is in the U. States. It is Schools which will regenerate the world, and a day will come in which it will be felt that Horace Mann is truly a great man, and has been more useful to humanity than all the Cæsars."

Senor Sarmiento is a corporator of the University of Chili, and member of various literary societies, the Historical Institute of France, the Free Trade Association of Hamburg, the Agricultural Society of Berlin, the Historical Society of R. I., the Literary Academy of Madrid, &c., &c.

* "More than 2,000 spectators assembled to witness the inaugurating ceremonies—the State and City officials, teachers, parents, and children, crowded the halls and class-rooms, and yard, and neighboring houses, while the Priest performed the ceremony of benediction. Addresses appropriate to the occasion were delivered, and hymns and songs were sung by the children; and the only cause of regret was the absence of the man who had originated the enterprise, which in its inception was deemed Utopian. More than thirty day schools are now in operation in this city, with 2,000 pupils."

ALONZO POTTER, D. D., LL. D.

RE. REV. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., the first President of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, was born of parents who were of Rhode Island, in Beekman, (now La Grange,) in Dutchess County, New York, July 10th 1800, and died in San Francisco, California, July 4th, 1865. After attending the common school of his town till he was fourteen years old, he enjoyed the advantages of a classical and mathematical training for college, in the academy at Poughkeepsie, then under the charge of Daniel S. Barnes, who was afterward associated with Dr. Griscom in the Public High School of the City of New York. He graduated in 1818, at Union College, the first scholar in a class which included many men who afterward became eminent.

He commenced teaching immediately after graduating, in Philadelphia, and in the following year was called to Union College as tutor, where he became, in 1821, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, which Chair he filled till 1826, when he became Rector of St. Paul's Church, in Boston, but returned to Schenectady in 1831, on the urgent solicitation of his father-in-law, Dr. Nott, to become Vice President and Professor of Moral Philosophy in Union College, which positions he filled till 1845, when he was elected Bishop of the Diocese of Pennsylvania. As a college officer and teacher, he has had no superior for thorough instruction, and the power of cultivating lofty aspirations and a manly character in his pupils; and while doing his whole duty as a college officer and teacher, and as Rector and Bishop, no man in his day and place did more to promote the cause of popular education and religious philanthropy. He was the adviser of James Wadsworth of Geneva, in his voluntary labors, and pecuniary contributions, and of the School Department at Albany in its official action, and of the friends of popular education, in all efforts to establish School Libraries, Educational Periodicals, County Supervision, State Normal Schools, and to elevate and inform public sentiment on the whole subject of Educational Improvement. His wise counsel and earnest appeals were sure to be heard in all County, State, and National School Conventions, up to the day that his own nervous system broke down beneath his manifold labors. The Hospital, the Divinity School, the Literary and Lecture Associations of Philadelphia, and every department of education in Pennsylvania felt the impulse of his earnest spirit. The School for Imbeciles at Media was a charity of his suggestion and efforts.

On the outbreak of the rebellion, Bishop Potter took a decided stand on the side of the National Government, was an active member of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, and an earnest friend of Emancipation—devoting much time to the hospitals of invalid and wounded soldiers, until his vital powers were exhausted, when he took a voyage to the Pacific, but died before he could be taken to the land.

Bishop Potter was the author of "The Principles of Science applied to the Domestic and Mechanic Arts," "Political Economy, its Objects, Uses and Principles," and a "Hand Book for Readers and Students"—all published in Harpers' District School Library, which was got up under his supervision. "The School," the first part of the "School and Schoolmaster," was prepared by him at the request of Mr. Wadsworth, and had a circulation of over 60,000 copies. He received the degree of D. D. from Harvard College, and of LL. D. from Union College.

GORHAM D. ABBOTT, LL. D.

REV. GORHAM D. ABBOTT, LL. D., born in Brunswick Me, in 1807, was the third of five sons of Jacob Abbott, Esq.,—Jacob, John S. C., Gorham D., Charles E., and Samuel P.,—all of whom received a regular collegiate and theological education, at Bowdoin College, and at Andover Theological Seminary;—and all have devoted much of their lives to the children and youth of our country.

Impaired health at the close of his theological course, led Mr. Abbott to make a tour, mainly equestrian, through most of the United States, and, afterward, many voyages to Europe. Examinations of the state of educational institutions, and of the press in both continents, turned his attention more particularly to the vast influence of these great agencies upon society.

A compilation of extensive tabular and statistical views respecting the educational institutions, and the issues of the press, in all forms,—books, magazines, journals, newspapers, popular songs, and flying sheets, in Great Britain, France, Germany, and the United States, induced a number of gentlemen to undertake a combined effort to improve the character and extend the influence of these agencies in our country.

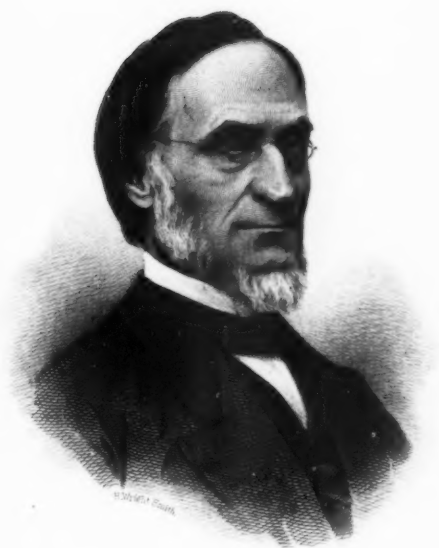
In 1837 Mr. Abbott accepted a call to take charge of the Presbyterian Church at New Rochelle, New York, and resided there, in this relation till 1841, devoting most of his time during the week to educational labors in New York.

In 1838 he undertook the organization of "The American Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge." Pursuing this object he traveled 15,000 miles, and arranged and conducted more than one hundred public meetings in its behalf, in most of the cities and large towns in the Atlantic States.

In 1843, he commenced, in connection with his brother, the establishment of the "Abbott Collegiate Institute for Young Ladies," in Colonnade Row, La Fayette Place, in the hope of calling attention to a higher order of education for daughters in our country, and of elevating its general character. The prosperity of these efforts, and the necessary enlargement of his plans, led successively to other locations, and finally to the erection of "THE SPINGLER INSTITUTE," on Union Square, where for more than twelve years Mr. Abbott conducted one of the most distinguished institutions for the education of daughters, in our country.

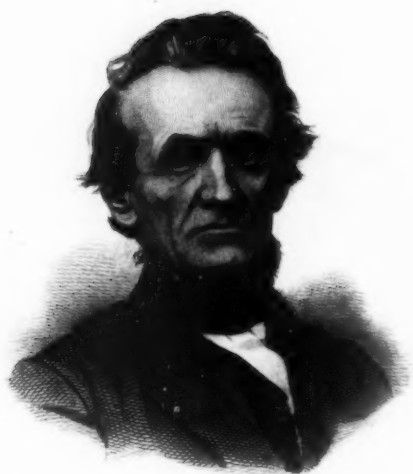
At the expiration of the lease of this edifice, he secured the ample grounds and commodious mansion on the Fifth Avenue, corner of 34th Street, known as the "Townsend Estate," as the foundation of a college for the education of woman. The proposed additions to this building, with the enlarged complement of appointments and belongings,—in lecture room, library, cabinet, painting gallery, observatory and philosophical apparatus, would have made it one of the most complete establishments, for the purpose, in the world.

But the disturbances of the war, and other attending circumstances, disappointed Mr. Abbott's plans, and swept away the principal fruits of his five and twenty years of effort to establish an institution for daughters worthy of the metropolis of our country; but he continued his school under the original name, in Park Avenue, until the fall of 1866, when he concluded to retire for a season from the teacher's work.



George D. Abbott

"JEWELL'S INSTITUTE"



Saml Galloway



PRESIDENTS OF THE OHIO STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.*

SAMUEL GALLOWAY.

SAMUEL GALLOWAY, the first President of the Ohio Teachers' Association, was born of Scotch-Irish parentage, in Gettysburg, Adams County, Penn., in 1811, where he lived until the death of his father in 1819, when he removed to Ohio, and continued his intellectual training at Miami University, graduating with its highest honors in 1833.

For a year, after graduating, he taught a classical school at Hamilton, and in 1835 succeeded Rev. William H. McGuffey, D. D., in the professorship of the Ancient Languages in Miami University at Oxford, but in consequence of ill health resigned at the end of a year to engage in farm work. With renovated strength he resumed teaching, first at Springfield, Ohio, and in 1839-40 as Professor of Ancient Languages in South Hanover College, Indiana, but his health again failing, he returned to Ohio, commenced the study of law at Hillsborough, was admitted to the bar in 1842, and in 1843 removed to Chillicothe, was elected Secretary of State in 1844, when he removed to Columbus, where he has since resided. He declined a reelection as Secretary of State in 1851, resumed the practice of the law, took, as he had always done, an active part in politics, for which his genius for oratory fitted him, and was elected to Congress in 1854, and participated prominently in the political conflicts arising out of the Kansas difficulties, both in Congress and in all the ultimate issues.

As Secretary of State, Mr. Galloway was ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, and in that capacity his personal efforts, and his annual reports to the Legislature, inaugurated a new era in the history of public instruction in Ohio, and entitle him to a high place among the educational benefactors of the State. His eloquent advocacy of the claims of teaching to much more honorable and lucrative estimation than it had received, of a higher standard of qualification for its duties, of Teachers' Institutes and Associations, of county superintendency, of an independent State superintendency, of school libraries, and generally of the inestimable value of education both to the public and to individuals, arrested the attention of public men, and prepared the way for the associated and legislative action which followed. Of the State Teachers' Association, which was formed in December, 1847, he was elected the first President, and has often responded to invitations to address educational conventions and associations, and take part in all philanthropic movements, although his special line of study and activity has been in the sphere of politics and law. In his own chosen field, before a jury, the bench, or the people, Ohio has among her

* A sketch of the life of A. J. Riskoff, sixth President of the Ohio Association, will be found in connection with the National Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1858.

living orators not one more versatile, effective, or popular. Gifted with humor, pathos, imagination, and action, he will exhibit in a single speech, on a single subject, almost every style of oratory, and carry his hearers from grave to gay, from the irresistibly comic to the terrible earnest, in rapid succession, reminding the hearers of Choate and Clay and Corwin in their happiest efforts.

ISAAC SAMS.

ISAAC SAMS was born in England, in 1788. He served four years as attaché on the staff of Admiral Pickmore, in the Baltic and the Mediterranean Seas, from whence he was transferred to the office of Sir John Colpoys, K. B., Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital, where he served six years as Corresponding Clerk. But in 1818, having become fascinated by Morris Birkbeck's account of the United States, he came over to Maryland and established a boarding-school, which he conducted for seventeen years, with eminent success.

In 1835 he removed to Brooklyn, New York, in order to extend the field of his exertions. With commendatory letters from his friends in Maryland and Pennsylvania, to such gentlemen as Chancellor Kent, Washington Irving, Gardner G. Howland, Robert B. Minturn, and his school was filled the first day. But his health utterly failing, he was compelled, in a short time, to retire from the hopeful prospect before him to an estate which he had purchased near Hillsborough, in Ohio.

After ten years out-door exercise, in clearing the forest and farming the land, his health being restored, he was called to conduct the Hillsborough Academy, which he did for six years. He then devoted his attention to the establishing of a Union School in the town of Hillsborough, which, after serious opposition, he was happy enough to see carried, by a great majority of the people. In this institution he was for one year Professor of Mathematics, and for three years Superintendent.

He was appointed in 1838 to the Board of School Examiners of Highland County, and by means of a steady and progressive system of examinations inaugurated by him, he has helped to make the teachers of Highland among the best of the State. In 1851 he was elected President of the State Association of Teachers.

JOHN HANCOCK.

JOHN HANCOCK was born in Clermont county, Ohio, February 18, 1825. He had no educational advantages except such as were extended by the common country schools of that section, but, through the facilities of a small neighborhood library, he early imbibed a taste for reading, which, as in the case of hundreds of the leading men of this country, faithfully and thoroughly cultivated, has well supplied the place of the more formal training of the collegiate course. There are very few men in any quarter of the country or in any profession whose reading has been more extensive or directed in better channels than that of the subject of this sketch.

Mr. Hancock commenced his career as a teacher at the age of nineteen, in his own neighborhood, and after teaching some four or five years in country and village schools, he went to the city of Cincinnati through the influence of Dr. Joseph Ray, who had, in the Institutes of his county, observed his accurate attainments and excellent views of instruction and discipline. For little more than a year he served as first assistant in the Sixth District School, and then





RAY, JOSEPH. 1811-1871. BOSTON, MASS.

Joseph Ray.



became principal on the retirement of Mr. Rickoff. At the end of the second year he was called to the principalship of the First Intermediate or Grammar School, made up of the highest classes of the district schools in the western part of the city. This school was the first of its kind established in Cincinnati, and was then looked upon as an experiment. It is greatly owing to the skill, ability, and untiring perseverance of Mr. Hancock, that the experiment became a success, and was permanently ingrafted upon the system. After nearly ten years of assiduous labor in this school, Mr. Hancock resigned his position, to take one which was offered to him in Mr. Richard Nelson's Commercial College, at a salary very much larger than was paid him in the public schools.

Mr. Hancock became a member of the Ohio State Teachers' Association in 1851, and the same year he was elected Secretary. In 1856-7 he served with distinguished ability as chairman of the Executive Committee. In 1858 he was chosen as Vice President, and in 1859 was elected to the presidency of the Association. He has, from the first year of his membership in the Association, been a very frequent contributor to the Ohio Journal of Education, of which he was an associate editor for some four or five years. In 1860 he was editor of the "*Journal of Progress*," an educational paper established by Mr. Elias Longley, from which his articles were extensively copied by other journals of the same class, throughout the Union. In 1865 he became principal editor of the "*News and Educator*," published by Mr. Nelson.

JOSEPH RAY, M. D.

JOSEPH RAY was born in Ohio County, Va., November 25th, 1807. He was remarkable for his studious habits from early boyhood, and at sixteen years of age commenced teaching to procure the means of acquiring a better education, pursuing his studies at the same time under great difficulties and discouragements. He first entered Washington College, Penn., and afterward, with an interval of teaching, the Ohio University at Athens, Ohio. Without completing a collegiate course he commenced, in 1827, the study of medicine, attended lectures at the Ohio Medical College at Cincinnati, and having taken his degree in 1831, married and commenced practice in the Commercial Hospital as surgeon. In October of the same year he became teacher in the preparatory department of Woodward College, in 1834 was promoted to the position of professor of mathematics, and in 1851, when the college became merged in the Woodward High School, was elected its President. He presided over the school with signal success till his decease in April, 1857.

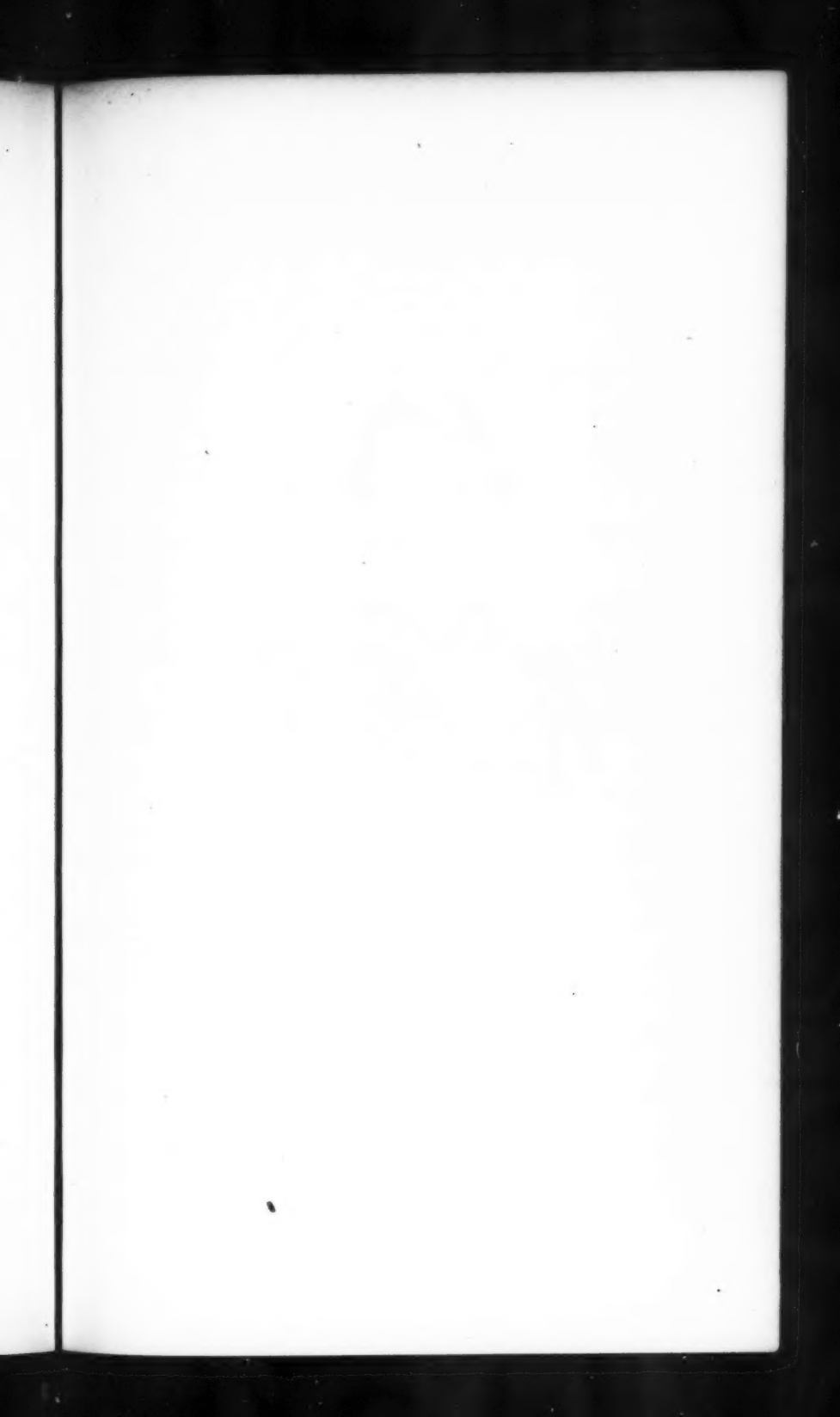
For the last five or six years of his life Dr. Ray was also President of the Board of Directors of the House of Refuge, to which, as to every thing in which he engaged, he gave unremitting attention. With a mind quick and of great earnestness and power, and with indomitable perseverance, it was his characteristic to master whatever he attempted and to infuse his own energy into others with whom he associated. He was a prominent and active member of the State Teachers' Association, and was rarely absent from its meetings. He was elected its President in 1852. From 1854 till his death he was one of the associate editors of the "Ohio Journal of Education," and for a portion of the time editor of the mathematical department. In 1834 he published his first work upon arithmetic, soon followed by a series of works upon arithmetic and algebra, which are characterized especially by their practical thoroughness, and have had an almost unparalleled circulation.

LORIN ANDREWS, LL. D.

LORIN ANDREWS was born in Ashland County, Ohio, on the 1st of April, 1819. Having spent his boyhood in labor upon his father's farm, with a common school education, such as it then was in Ohio, he entered at eighteen years of age the Grammar School at Gambier, and afterward Kenyon College. Here, under the teachings of Bishop McIlvaine, a religious faith was awakened which shone out in and governed all his future daily life. Compelled by want of means to leave college he, in 1840, engaged as an assistant in the academy at Ashland. He afterward taught for a time at Mansfield, but returned and took charge of the Ashland Academy, at the same time pursuing the study of law. In 1847 he was admitted to the bar and the same year was called to the superintendency of the Public schools of Massillon. He applied himself zealously to the duties of this position, and becoming impressed with the lamentable defects of the common schools, he entered vigorously upon their improvement. He devoted his spare time to holding Teachers' Institutes and delivering educational addresses, and in the State Teachers' Association, which was organized in the same year, he was the leading spirit. As Chairman of the Executive Committee he was untiring, maturing plans which to others seemed hopeless, and with masterly skill directing the energies of the Association to their accomplishment. He seized upon the occasion of the election of a General Assembly, soon to be held under the new State Constitution, to secure "a school system which should be unparalleled for the liberality of its provisions, the wisdom of its measures, and the harmony and efficiency of its operations." Appointed by the Association in 1851 as its Agent, he resigned the principalship of Massillon High School, and immediately began a thorough canvass of the State, and during the first year's labor he procured the delivery of more than two hundred addresses, the holding of forty-one Institutes, and the organization of a large number of Union Schools.

At the next meeting of the Association Mr. Andrews recommended the publication of an educational paper, and the "*Journal of Education*" was accordingly established and its control and management intrusted to the Executive Committee, of which he was again Chairman. Again appointed State Agent, he devoted another year to the work of creating a public sentiment that should demand efficient action in favor of education by the next General Assembly, and as a result of these exertions and the vigorous coöperation of other laborers in the same cause, the School Law of 1853 was enacted, in whose provisions for a State Commissioner, Township Board of Education, Common School Libraries, free graded schools in towns and villages, and a free education for all, the practical views of Mr. Andrews are manifest. The friends of education with one voice commended Mr. Andrews to the suffrages of the people for the office of Commissioner, but the canvass assumed a political character and he was defeated. At the session of the Association in 1853 he was elected its President.

Soon after the Trustees of Kenyon College—then struggling in deep and almost hopeless embarrassment—called Mr. Andrews to the Presidency of that institution. Said Bishop McIlvaine:—"The condition of the College demanded just the qualities for which he was so distinguished—the talent for administration, a very sound judgment, a prompt and firm decision, united with a special drawing of heart toward young men in the course of their education." "And all the highest expectations of his administration were more than fulfilled.





J. W. Andrews

ENGRAVED FOR HARTMAN'S AM. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.



How entirely did he devote himself, heart and mind and body, to the work; how pure and single were his motives and aims; how little of self was ever seen in what he proposed or did; what zeal and diligence, what soundness of judgment and discrimination of character; what strong determination and prompt decision, and yet what love, tenderness, kindness—what an affectionate spirit and winning manner marked his whole administration. What student ever connected therewith will not bear testimony to the constancy and faithfulness of his Christian character? An earnest, tender zeal for the souls of those committed to his administration was as manifest as his devotedness to the culture of their minds." For these qualities, shown everywhere, and in all his conduct, another says:—"We utter a weak hyperbole when we say that President Andrews was the idol of the teachers of the State."

When the war of the Rebellion threatened, Mr. Andrews was alive to the needs of his country, and early in the progress of events addressed a letter to the Governor, pledging his services in case they should be needed, and when Sumter fell and the President issued a call for volunteers, he was the first man in Ohio to respond. All the State felt the example. He recruited a company from Knox County, but was shortly promoted to the head of the Fourth Regiment, and was detailed to service in Western Virginia. His regiment soon became noted for its discipline and efficiency, but he was taken ill with camp fever in the midst of his duties, and returned only to die. He died at Gambier on the 18th of September, 1861, universally beloved and deeply lamented.

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS, D. D.

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS, third son of Rev. William Andrews, pastor of the Congregational church at Danbury, Conn., was born on the 3d of January, 1815. His early education and preparation for college was received in a private family school under the instruction of his father and elder brothers. The family removed to Cornwall in 1827, and being then averse to pursuing a collegiate course, he was placed in a store at Sharon for two years, when he returned home, resumed his studies, and in May, 1833, entered Amherst College. At the close of the Freshman year he engaged in teaching in the academy at Cornwall, and afterward at Danbury, having previously acted as assistant in his father's school at Cornwall, and for two winters in the school of his brother, E. W. Andrews, in Torrington, Conn. In 1835 he entered Williams College where he graduated in 1837—of the first class that graduated under Rev. Dr. Mark Hopkins. Shortly before his graduation he accepted charge of an academy at Lee, Mass., where he remained until the Fall of 1838, when he was appointed tutor in Marietta College, Ohio, upon the unsolicited recommendation of Dr. Hopkins, and in the following Spring was made professor of mathematics and natural philosophy. In January, 1855, on the resignation of the President, Rev. Henry Smith, D. D., he was elected to succeed him. He received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from Williams College in 1856.

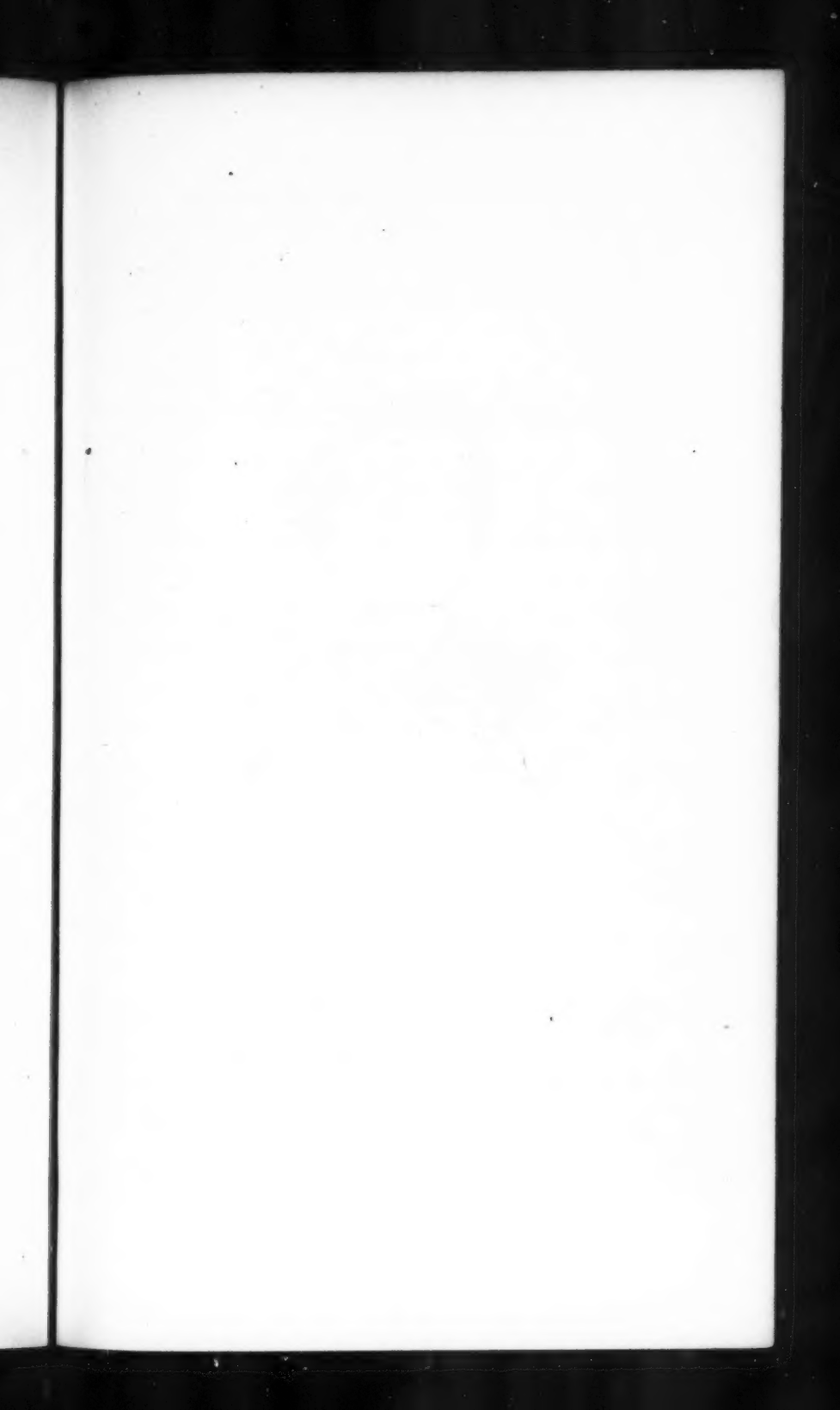
Besides the educational labors incident to his position in Marietta College, President Andrews has taken an active interest in the cause of popular education in Ohio, has assisted in conducting many Teachers' Institutes, and delivered numerous public lectures on educational topics. Before the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1856, he read, in 1852, a report upon the "*Connection between Schools and Colleges, and their Influence upon each other*," which was published, as also an address before the Association in 1854, on "*The Teacher's Duty to Himself*," and an address at the twenty-fifth

anniversary of Marietta College, in June, 1860. He has also contributed many articles to the "Journal of Education," especially the early volumes, and has been ever ready to aid in promoting the good of the schools in his immediate neighborhood. For six years he was in the Marietta Board of Education, for ten years was one of the Examiners for the city schools, and for very many years one of the Examiners for the County.

E. E. WHITE, A. M.

EMERSON ELBRIDGE WHITE was born at Mantua, Portage County, Ohio, January 10th, 1829. With the usual school training of a farmer's boy in Ohio, at the age of fourteen he had mastered "Daboll" and "Adams," and during the next winter was looking into algebra and natural philosophy. The winter following he undertook the task of subduing the rebellious spirits that had usually held sway in the old log school house of an adjoining district, known as "Sodom," and soon succeeded in infusing a manly spirit and love of study. Receiving soon after his parents' permission to seek an education, he entered Twinsburgh Academy, where he continued for three years, supporting himself by farm labor and teaching, having charge for a time of the academy at Mt. Vernon, and also of the Twinsburgh Academy temporarily, in the absence of its principal. In 1848 he entered Cleveland University, then opening auspiciously under President Mahan, and upon the death of the professor of mathematics, was engaged to conduct the recitations in mathematics. This he did with great acceptance, though his own class was one of those under his instruction. While thus performing double duty, he was solicited to take charge for some weeks of the Cleveland Public Schools, which was done without interruption of his studies and services at the University. He was induced to postpone his purpose of graduation at the following commencement and entrance upon the study of law, by his appointment as principal of the Clinton Street Ward School, in which position he continued two years, and during this time published his "*Class Book of Geography*." Resigning this position in 1854, he was soon after elected principal of the Central High School, and now abandoning his former projects, he entered anew and with fresh zeal upon his life-business as a teacher. While in charge of this school he delivered a course of lectures upon Commercial Geography and Commercial Calculations, before the students of the Commercial College, and also wrote the larger portion of "*Bryant and Stratton's Commercial Arithmetic*." In October, 1856, he accepted the superintendency of the Public Schools of Portsmouth, Ohio, resigning his connection with the Cleveland schools.

At the annual meeting of the State Association in 1859, Mr. White was elected Chairman of the Executive Committee, in which office he was continued for three years, his term of service being marked by the successful adjustment of the financial difficulties in which the Association had become involved. In 1861 he removed to Columbus to take charge of the "*Ohio Educational Monthly*," of which he is still editor. In 1862 he was elected President of the Association, and in November, 1863, was appointed by Governor Todd, State Commissioner of Common Schools to fill the unexpired term of C. W. H. Cathcart, resigned. During his superintendency he edited a new edition of the School Code, with a digest of official decisions on its provisions, and with forms for the transaction of all business under it. He received the honorary degree of Master of Arts in 1859 from Marietta College.





Engraved by John Sartorius 1847

Truly Yours
A. Wood,

DR. A. D. LORD.

ASA DEARBORN LORD, one of the pioneers and master-builders in the educational enterprise in Ohio, was born in Madrid, St. Lawrence County, New York, June 17th, 1816. Inheriting from his mother, who had been a teacher for seventeen years before her marriage, a love for teaching, and thoroughly taught by her, and in the district school, in the elementary branches, and by Rev. Asa Brainard, in the academy at Potsdam, in academic studies, as well as indoctrinated in the teachers' department of that academy, in the practical work of school organization and instruction. And having served the usual apprenticeship in district schools, he commenced his career as a teacher in a private school in Willoughby, Ohio, in the Fall of 1837, which he changed for the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary in the Spring of 1839. Here, for eight years, he had under his charge nearly three hundred pupils every year, of whom nearly one-third prepared themselves as members of the teachers' class, for teaching. Through the graduates of that seminary, and its teachers' classes, he introduced new views of education, and he inaugurated a new system of teaching throughout the Western Reserve.

In the Autumn of 1843 he held a special course of instruction for two weeks, at Kirtland, for teachers, similar to that subsequently given under the name of Teachers' Institutes; and in September, 1845, was associated with Salem Town in conducting the first Teachers' Institute, so called, in Ohio, at Sandusky, from which time he has conducted many scores of such, at which thousands of teachers have been inspired with higher aims of professional study, and trained to improved methods of school management and instruction.

In the Spring of 1846, having become satisfied that while common schools in small rural districts could be greatly improved by the employment of better qualified teachers, that the public schools in cities and villages could be advanced only by a system of gradation by which pupils of the same age and attainments could be classed and taught by teachers having special qualification for each grade. To inform himself of the experience and views of New England educators, he entered into correspondence with Hon. Henry Barnard, who had, in visit to Ohio in 1843, and again in 1846, called the attention of school men to the subject, and induced John W. Andrews, Esq., and others, of Columbus, to begin the system in that city. February, 1847, he became superintendent of the schools of Columbus, which he visited on invitation of Mr. Andrews, in 1846, the first officer of that class in Ohio, and in a few months inaugurated a system of graded schools, including a public high school, which was greatly influential in introducing a similar system of union or graded schools into all the cities and large villages in Ohio.

In July, 1846, Dr. Lord—[he received his medical degree from the Medical College at Willoughby, where he attended lectures in 1844 and 1845,] commenced the publication of the "Ohio School Journal," at Kirtland, which he continued, after his own removal, at Columbus, until the close of 1859, when it was merged in "The School Friend," published by William B. Smith & Co., at Cincinnati. On the discontinuance of the latter, he edited the "Public School Advocate" for one year, when the "Ohio Journal of Education" was com-

* For History of Teachers' Institutes in Ohio, see Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. XV., 401.

menced, of which he was resident editor to the close of the first volume in 1856.

In April, 1854, Dr. Lord succeeded Lorin Andrews as agent of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, which he had helped to establish in 1846, and to whose proceedings he had given great practical efficiency as chairman of the executive committee from the start. He resumed the charge of the schools of Columbus in September, 1855, in which he continued till he was appointed superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Blind, in May, 1856. To the oversight and instruction of its pupils, and general management of the institution, he devoted the last ten years to the universal satisfaction of pupils, parents, and the State.

THOMAS H. HARVEY, A. M.

THOMAS H. HARVEY was born in New London, Merrimac County, in the State of New Hampshire, December 18, 1821, but received most of his elementary instruction in Ohio, his father having removed to that State in 1833, and settled in the neighborhood of Painsville. For four years (from 1836 to 1841) he served an apprenticeship in a printing office, and in the two years following studied law and Latin. In the Winter of 1842-3 he taught his first district school, and in the same year attended the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary at Kirtland, Lake County, then under the charge of Dr. A. D. Lord. With four terms' attendance on this seminary, and a continued experience in teaching the Geauga High School, which was opened under his auspices in 1845, and in the County Academy at Seneca in 1841, he became Superintendent of the Union School of Massillon in Stark County, in the Spring of 1851, and remained there till the Fall of 1865, when he accepted a similar position at Painsville, Lake County.

In his whole career Mr. Harvey has been a diligent student, and a comprehensive and thoughtful reader, mastering more than the ordinary college curriculum in languages and mathematics, the moral, mental, and social sciences, and the history, principles, and methods of education, and no college graduate ever better deserved the degree of Master of Arts which was conferred on him by Kenyon College in 1858. He was one of the seven teachers who organized the Ohio State Teachers' Association at Akron, in 1847, and was the first Secretary, and its President, in 1865. He has labored every year in Teachers' Institutes since their first introduction in Ohio, in 1846, giving special attention to the subject of physical geography. He has been a frequent contributor to the educational periodicals of the State, the "*Ohio Journal of Education*," and its successor, the "*Ohio Educational Monthly*," and wherever wanted he has performed the duties of a public-spirited citizen.

II.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

(Continued from Vol. xvi., p. 352.)

II.—SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN THE NON-HUNGARIAN PROVINCES.

I.—HISTORY OF GYMNASIUMS.

UP to the time of the Empress Maria Theresa, under whom the present system of secondary instruction was inaugurated, the subjects and methods of teaching in the Latin schools of Austria, as in the schools of the Jesuits everywhere, bore the impress of the "*Ratio et Institutio Studiorum*" of Aquaviva.* In Bohemia and Moravia, under Rudolph II, (1577–1612,) there flourished some thirty Protestant schools, based upon Melancthon's system of classical study,† and under the direction of the University at Prague. Great zeal was shown by the cities of the provinces in sustaining these institutions, and the rectors of the University, from time to time, prescribed the course of study that should be followed. The most noted of these regulations were the "*Schola Zatecensis*" of the learned Jacobus Strabo (1575), the "*Ordo Studiorum*" of Petrus Codicillus (1586), and the rules of 1609, which established five classes and prescribed the grammar of Philip Ramée, the dialogues of Castalian and Vives, the epistles and select orations of Cicero, Ovid's *Tristia*, Virgil's *Æneid*, selections from Horace, Buchanan, and the Greek Testament, with Plutarch and some other historians.

At the abolition of the order of Jesuits there were thirty-seven gymnasiums under their direction in the provinces then belonging to the Empire, of which the oldest was that at Innsbruck. As characteristic of these schools it is scarcely necessary to mention the division of the course into three "grammar" classes, devoted to "the rudiments," "grammar," and "syntax," with some times a preparatory class—two "humanity" classes, for "poetry" and "rhetoric"—and a two or three years' "philosophical" course, in "logic," "physics" and "metaphysics"; the almost exclusive use of the Latin language in both speaking and writing; and the only occasional introduction of "real" instruction in the lower classes, while it was totally neglected in the higher. Great stress has been laid by the defenders of the system of the Jesuits upon the prominence given in the selection of candidates to the order, to their efficiency as teachers; upon the general use and extended study of the Latin tongue; upon the requirement that each member of the order, after two years of university

* Am. Jour. of Ec., Vol. xiv., p. 462.

† Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. iv., p. 749.

study, should become the teacher of a grammar class, thus supplementing the zeal and devotion of youth to the more mature experience and wisdom of the prefects and masters of the higher classes; upon the usual requirement of three years of service in the instruction of the higher classes before the completion of the theological course; and upon the advantages resulting from the wealth and full endowment of their schools. On the other hand it is asserted that less worthy considerations often governed in the selection of members and in the management of the schools; that "Jesuits' Latin" bore an ill repute among the lovers of pure Latinity, while more accordance was given to the practical use of that language than accords with the spirit of more recent times; that the rules which regulated the removal and change of teachers were such as to make thorough instruction impossible, especially in the philosophical classes; that in these classes the classics and applied mathematics were wholly neglected, and other instruction given only by dictation; and that the amount of instruction was greatly limited by the length of the vacations and the number of holidays. It may at least be asserted, without injustice, that while their schools for a long period answered fully the demands of the times, and were the admiration of even their opponents, yet the stubbornness with which they clung to the forms of scholasticism and humanism, in which their system of instruction originated, showed itself at length unfavorably in the want of originality of thought, in an exclusive fostering of a mere fluency in the use of language, in an utter indifference to the national tongue and to popular enlightenment and culture, and in a fondness for abstract, barren speculation, and a proneness to dogmatism.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the Piarists also gradually extended their schools from Bohemia into the other provinces, and in 1773 they numbered twenty-four gymnasiums. They were not strictly bound to the plan of instruction adopted by their founder and followed in general the method of the Jesuits, but giving more attention to Greek, German, history, geography, mathematics, and physics. The candidates, after two years' training, were obliged to teach six or eight years in the common schools before a position could be obtained in a gymnasium. It is to the credit of this order that their schools rivaled in efficiency and reputation the institutions of the far more wealthy and powerful order of the Jesuits. There were also a score of schools of a similar grade under the charge of the Benedictine and other religious orders, including one at Roveredo, conducted by lay teachers, and a single Protestant gymnasium, founded at Teschen in 1709.

The attempt to reform the Jesuit system may be said to have commenced with the eighteenth century, under Joseph I., who, in 1711, called the attention of the rector of the University to the condition of the philosophical course. A commissioner was appointed by the emperor Charles VI. to propose a plan of reform for the entire University, before whom the Jesuits defended their system as in every respect unexceptionable. The commission made no report, but in 1735 the Emperor issued a decree which for the first

time placed their educational operations under government control, and was intended to promote the introduction of a more judicious and better regulated course of study. The attention of Maria Theresa was drawn to the subject long before her efforts for the improvement of the common schools, and Gerhard van Swieten, previously of Leyden, was selected to guide the reform, who was keen in detecting faults and prompt in applying remedies, but unlike some of his successors, willingly recognized and retained whatever was of value in the existing system. Even during the war of the Austrian succession, (which made more evident than ever before the unity of interest of the several provinces,) the Empress instituted inquiries into the condition of instruction, especially in the Protestant gymnasiums of Bohemia, and as a consequence, in 1747, required that greater attention should be everywhere given to history, Greek, and arithmetic, and to the gradual introduction of German grammar. The vacations were to be shortened, much useless instruction was done away with, and in the philosophical course the study of ethics, politics, and applied mathematics was required. Serfs were to be admitted to the schools only with the consent of their lords, and to still further assure the benefits of the schools to those best able to improve them, scholars of proven incapacity were to be immediately removed. At the same time the attainment of an academical degree was made necessary before entrance upon theological or medical study.

This reform was extended by the more general decrees of 1752, which made the course of study still more prescribed, permitted instruction in the prescribed branches only in the authorized gymnasiums, provided a system of inspection and examination, with semi-annual reports to the imperial government, and required the preparation and use of improved text-books. In 1760, a State Board was formed for the supervision of education and text-books, consisting of Swieten and Archbishop Migazzi, while subordinate boards were formed in the several provinces. These changes were introduced but imperfectly and with great difficulty, though the books for instruction, in the languages especially, were revised and improved. Some of the forms of superintendence were never carried into effect. The provincial boards appointed were at first composed entirely of Jesuits, but the war upon the order by the State, the secular clergy, and many of the other religious orders, had now commenced in earnest, their places were soon filled by others, and their influence at the Universities was rapidly and greatly diminished. Finally, in 1772, the order was entirely abolished, and, as a consequence, the whole subject of gymnasial reform assumed a new aspect. The extensive possessions of the order were appropriated by the State, and the larger portion shortly afterwards was devoted to educational uses, and has since constituted what has been usually styled the "Educational Fund." The gymnasiums of the Jesuits thus became endowed State institutions. But the Empress deemed it advisable that their number should be somewhat diminished,

both on account of the want of teachers, which could not otherwise be remedied but by the appointment of ex-Jesuits, and for the purpose of procuring means, even at the expense of the gymnasiums, for the improvement of the common schools. Another prominent motive was the fear lest agriculture, trade and commerce should suffer if the facilities for entering upon literary pursuits were too great. A number of the more incomplete and poorly endowed institutions were accordingly gradually suppressed, amounting in all to thirty-two, and embracing some that had not belonged to the Jesuits.

The necessity, however, for a more complete and uniform organization of the schools that remained was no less urgent than before. The State Board of Education, temporarily suspended in 1772, upon the death of Swieten and resignation of the Archbishop, who was opposed to many of the proposed changes, was revived in 1774, with Kressel as president, and required to report a plan of reform for all the educational institutions of the Empire, including common schools, gymnasiums, convent schools, academies, and universities, and giving special consideration to the question of the general use of the German language in instruction. A partial report, giving a plan of study for the "philosophical" course, drawn up by Martini, was made, and received the approval of the Empress during the same year, and provision was made for the introduction of the revised course in the University at Vienna, and as soon as possible in the other universities and convent schools. The question of gymnasial reform, however, was not so easily decided, and occasioned hot dispute between two opposing parties—the one favoring the system of the Jesuits, the other desiring to introduce a course and method similar to those which years of trial in the more advanced German States, especially in Prussia and Saxony, had proven so excellent and advantageous. Prominent among the plans proposed by the latter party was one advanced by Prof. Hess, of the Vienna University, which regarding the gymnasiums as institutions chiefly for general instruction, preparatory to higher scientific study, still retained Latin as the principal branch, but added to it a judicious and somewhat extended course of Greek and German study, mathematics, history, and natural science—the whole wrought out with much minuteness of detail. Martini recognized its many excellencies and warmly recommended it to the approval of the State Board, and after being modified by Hess in some of its wider deviations from the existing system, it was reported by them to the Empress, and by her referred to her principal ministers for their opinions. But the idea that a gymnasium should not have an exclusively philological character had not yet gained general favor, and while many experienced schoolmen received and sustained the projected change with enthusiasm, many others prominent in the government were as violently opposed to it. The Empress finally appealed to Gratian Marx, then principal of the Savoy Ritter Academy, who laid before a special Educational Board a plan which was approved by

them, and shortly afterwards, (October, 1775,) received the imperial sanction.

This system of Marx was fashioned upon the model of the Piarist institutions, in which, through the concerted action of the principals, various changes and reforms had been made as early as 1763. But beyond stricter regulations respecting the qualifications for admission, the semi-annual examinations and classification of the students and the removal of such as were found incompetent, the requirement of a thorough knowledge of Latin and its use in both speaking and writing on the part of all students intended for the university, and special provision for the supervision of the gymnasiums in the several provinces, the changes in the course of study were made only gradually as proper text-books were prepared, and were still incomplete at the death of the Empress in 1780. In the three grammar classes, the principal aim was still to speak Latin with correctness, to which was added a slight knowledge of Greek and some instruction in arithmetic, geography, and history, with the catechism. In the two humanity classes, all the instruction in the languages was given wholly in Latin, and admission and promotion depended upon the proficiency of the scholars in its use. Additional teachers were here provided for instruction in Greek, and though the standing of the students was not effected by their proficiency in this language, no premiums could be gained without satisfactory progress in it. Increased attention was to be given to mathematics, history, and geography, and as was previously the case, admission to the philosophical course depended upon the result of an examination in the studies of the gymnasium. No children of the class of serfs could be admitted to these classes, even so late as 1804, without permission from the public authorities.

But Joseph II., notwithstanding all that was done by him for the benefit of the common schools, had but little sympathy with many of the plans of gymnasial reform. The idea of Hess, that the gymnasiums should be made institutions for laying the ground-work of a general education, seemed a dream that was impossible to be realized. Their proper aim appeared to him rather to be the education of capable civil officers, the inculcation of "morality,"* and the imparting of such instruction as was most immediately and practically useful. The legislation of his reign was chiefly confined to general instructions to directors and teachers in relation to text-books, and a single ordinance upon the subject of instruction and discipline. The practical acquisition of the Latin language was made the principal object, the secondary branches being left in a great measure to the pleasure of the individual teachers. The course and amount of instruction were carefully regulated and none but the prescribed text-books were permitted, to the exclusion of the many manuscript works in

*The term "morality," as often used in this connection, does not convey at once to the American mind its true, prominent idea, implying, as it does, a habit of obedience to constituted authority, and compliance with law, which makes its inculcation a matter of supreme political importance.

which teachers had, too often to the detriment of their pupils, shown off their learning or self-conceit. Corporal punishment was prohibited and a system of rewards and punishments substituted, by means of records of merit and demerit, seats of honor and disgrace, and various similar methods of appeal to the sensitiveness of the scholars. Private meetings and societies of students, of a religious character, were forbidden, and regular attendance upon public worship, daily mass, catechetical instruction, &c., was made obligatory. The philosophical classes were also reorganized, the only essential reform being the substitution of the German language for the Latin, till this time exclusively used in instruction. Upon the whole, the character and efficiency of this higher department, under the influences bearing upon it, had deteriorated. In addition to these regulations, Greek was afterwards made so far obligatory upon the university classes that even the lowest grade for certificate could not be obtained without satisfactory progress in it. Hitherto, instruction in the gymnasiums had been gratuitous, and aided by the religious orders many had attended who afterwards found it difficult to sustain themselves through a course of university study. To discourage the attendance of such students, and also to increase the number of stipends, tuition fees were now exacted, varying from twelve to eighteen florins in the different gymnasial and philosophical classes, and the amount thus raised was added to the fund from which stipends were granted to students designed for the university. At the same time, the "seminaries" and boarding schools (*convicte*) were abolished, and their property added to the same fund. The establishment of private institutions was discouraged and valid certificates could be granted only by the gymnasiums, on which account their semi-annual examinations were open to private pupils. It soon, however, became evident, even to the government, that these schools were not fulfilling their object, and the more that no means were provided for the training of their teachers. Simply to pass the semi-annual examinations became the sole purpose for which the pupils studied, and discipline disappeared as its religious foundation was swept away by the rationalistic tendencies of the times. The party that had opposed the Emperor's reforms, especially in religious matters, called attention to these evils, and memorialized the throne for their reform. The Emperor himself acknowledged the force of these complaints, and only a few days before his death, (February, 1790,) appointed a commission to report a plan for the more perfect organization and gradation of the gymnasiums and higher schools. His successor, Leopold II., to whom the complaints were renewed, entrusted the reform to Martini, already president of the commission appointed by Joseph. Martini's plan, which went into effect in October, 1790, consisted in the formation of a "Teachers' Association" in each university department and in each gymnasium, which should have control of the instruction in their institutions, subject to the general direction of the "Educational Session" in each province, which was in turn subject indirectly to the higher school officials. Some provision was

made for the supply of more capable teachers, but the details of the plan upon these and other points, instruction, discipline, &c., are of the less importance as it was never carried but imperfectly into operation.

Emperor Francis succeeded Leopold II. in 1792. He favored the peculiar views of his minister, Rottenhann, who recognized the superiority of the gymnasiums of Protestant Germany, and recommended an examination of them and of the public schools of England. But in his opinion the higher speculative and historical branches of the philosophical course should be placed as far as possible out of general reach, and their pursuit by those who intended to engage in the practical business of life, and who could not hope to acquire a thorough understanding of them, should be discouraged as dangerous. Ordinary men should be content with the studies of immediate use to them and with received rules and principles. Prominence should therefore be given in the philosophical classes to mathematics and the natural sciences, while the instruction in history should be conducted with great care and judgment, to avoid conveying dangerous impressions and erroneous ideas, and a complete course of philosophical study should be established at only two or three of the universities. The correctness of these opinions was immediately questioned and warmly discussed by the Board of Educational Reform, which was appointed in 1795, and the debate was continued until interrupted for the consideration of the special reports upon the different classes of institutions, made by the individual members of the Board. The report upon gymnasiums was drawn up by I. F. Lang, principal of one of the Vienna schools, and of high reputation for scholarship and success in teaching. Rottenhann submitted a plan for a "lyceal course," as a substitute for the philosophical classes, and as intermediate between the gymnasial course and a course of true philosophical study. Reports upon instruction in special branches were also made by Gerstner, of the Prague University, by Mumelter, of the Vienna University, and others.

The final report of the Board was not made until 1799, and some time passed before any decisive measures were taken. In 1802, the Teachers' Associations, which had become very unpopular, were abolished, and the previously existing offices of superintendent of gymnasiums and of the higher departments, were restored. Lang was appointed to the former position. Meanwhile several ordinances were issued, designed to aid the enforcement of stricter discipline, and to foster a proper religious feeling, in opposition to the infidel tendencies of the age. Every gymnasium was required to have a catechist, by whom two hours of religious instruction should be given weekly, and his good report was essential to promotion to a higher class or to the holding of a stipend. Attendance at mass and at religious worship was strictly required, the conduct of pupils, even out of school hours, was under supervision, and their progress in school was encouraged by frequent reviews and examinations. Record was to be kept of the conduct and standing of each pupil, which at the completion

of his studies should be returned to the government and have decisive weight in the making of official appointments.

The first general measure of reform, differing in many respects from that proposed by Lang, was adopted in 1805. By this the number of classes in the higher gymnasiums was increased to six, and there were required to be as many teachers as classes, each strictly confined to instruction in a single branch. The hours of study were limited to eighteen in the week, half which were devoted to Latin throughout the course. Three hours were given to geography and history, two to mathematics, and the remaining two to natural history and physics in the three lower classes, and to Greek in the higher. The speaking of Latin was again strictly insisted upon in the third and higher classes. The students were to be graded according to conduct and proficiency into three divisions, by which promotion from one class to another should be governed, and at each semi-annual examination prize books were to be awarded. No private tutor or teacher could give instruction in the studies of the gymnasium without the permission of the prefect, (except country pastors in the aid of poor boys,) and private pupils in gymnasial towns were required to pay the tuition fees, to be present at the monthly examinations, and to pay an annual examination tax. A number of improved text-books were speedily issued, with detailed instructions and judicious advice respecting their use, for such as having been class teachers were least prepared to act as department teachers.

In 1808, all the regulations respecting study, instruction and discipline were gathered into a "gymnasial code," thus completing the organization of these schools, as the "School Constitution" had done for the common schools. The superintendency beyond the provincial capitals was committed to the officials of the circles—the subordinate supervision of the religious gymnasiums to the principals of the orders, and of the remainder to suitable members of the clergy. The director in each capital was also superintendent of gymnasial instruction throughout the province, and the one at Vienna was the referee for the gymnasial system in the State Board of Education, which had been re-established. By Lang's indefatigable exertions, the hitherto insufficient salaries of the teachers were raised, notwithstanding the unfavorable condition of the State finances, and amounted now to 5-800 florins, which resulted in drawing not a few able teachers from the legal profession.

A re-organization was at the same time being effected in the philosophical course, which was limited at the lyceums to two years and included only the most essential branches, but at the universities was extended to three years and afforded thorough philosophical instruction. The obligatory branches were religion, giving a more doctrinal basis to what had previously been taught historically,—philosophy, embracing psychology, logic, metaphysics, and moral philosophy,—elementary mathematics, physics, and general history. The instruction in philosophy, mathematics, and physics was given in Latin, while some attention was also given

to Greek. Two years study only was required of theological students, the third year being for those intending a full university course. The study of physiology was required of those designed for the medical profession, and of Austrian history of legal students. The optional studies were æsthetics, with reference particularly to German literature, history of the arts and sciences, pedagogy, practical geometry, agriculture and technology, to which a fourth year could be given. Full liberty was given for the study of diplomacy, the higher mathematics, astronomy, the modern languages, &c. The text-books were prescribed, and the examinations and gradation of the students as at the gymnasiums. The salaries at the lyceums were 800–1,000fl., at the universities 1,000–1,200fl., at Vienna 1,100–1,500fl., (afterwards raised to 1,500–2,000fl.)

Vacant teacherships, when under the control of the State, were open to competition, and the choice determined by an examination of the candidates. The first attempt at the special instruction of teachers was made at Vienna in 1809, but unsuccessfully. In 1811, two assistant teacherships were established with the same design at the university gymnasiums, and also in connection with the philosophical classes at Vienna and Prague.

The number of the gymnasiums had, during this time, gradually increased, owing to the efforts of the religious orders to thus strengthen themselves and at the same time remedy the prevalent scarcity of candidates for the priesthood, many communities also showing a willingness to contribute freely for the establishment of new schools, or the restoration of those that had been suspended. Upon the re-establishment of the Austrian monarchy, after the fall of Napoleon, the gymnasial system of Austria was extended to Salzburg, Carniola, the Littorale, Tyrol and Vorarlberg, and Dalmatia. Some time was found requisite for the re-organization of the schools of Tyrol and Dalmatia, and yet more for that of the gymnasiums and higher schools of Lombardy and Venice. In 1818, philosophical departments existed in connection with the three universities at Vienna, Prague, and Lemberg, and at eight lyceums in as many different provinces. There were also twelve "philosophical schools." The number of gymnasiums was eighty-two, of which twenty-five were in Bohemia, nine in Moravia, eight in each of the provinces of Lower Austria, Tyrol, and Galicia, five in Styria, four in Silesia, three in Dalmatia, while Upper Austria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Littorale, and the Frontier had each two, and Salzburg and Bukowina had each one.

Though the rigidly enforced adherence to the prescribed text-books and to the regulations respecting the extent and distribution of lessons tended to make instruction mechanical on the part of both teacher and scholar, yet much was effected through the labors of the more faithful teachers. But after the peace that relieved the Empire from its struggles with its foreign enemies, a successful effort was made to effect a retrograde movement, and to return gymnasial instruction to the position which it held in the days of Maria Theresa. Everything that favored progress in educa-

tion it had become customary to denounce as revolutionary, as protestant and hostile to the church, as Prussian and dangerous to Austria. In 1815, Francis had already taken measures to this end, and in 1818 the system of class teachers was restored and in the following year the time given to instruction in Latin was increased at the expense of that in geography and history, while natural history and physics were wholly omitted. The system of class teachers, already proven inefficient when it made less extensive demands upon the abilities of the teachers, could but decidedly increase the mechanical character of the instruction given, few having a satisfactory capacity for teaching more than one branch and beyond this but a mere understanding of the contents of the text-books in other branches. An improvement in the text-books now became a prime necessity, but they were left untouched, notwithstanding, too, the great advances that had been made in philological and other sciences. The spirit of alienation from the rest of Germany was producing its legitimate fruits.

In 1820, it was further proposed to limit the philosophical course to those branches most necessary as preparatory for the higher departments. In 1824, this change was effected and the course reduced to two years, to which a third could be added for the optional branches. Instruction was mostly given in German, (or Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) and with the new text-books that followed, the connection between the gymnasium and the philosophical course was wholly severed, and the latter burdened with an amount of mathematics and philosophy for which the lower classes gave no preparation. By this a restriction was laid upon the number of students preparing for the universities, more effectual than all previous ordinances, though other less prominent measures had a tendency to the same result. Not more than forty per cent., upon an average, of those who entered the philosophical course completed the second year's studies. There were, indeed, institutions that were less strict, but their reputation was low, and the discipline exceedingly loose. But even in the better institutions, discipline was more or less defective, and only personal influence or despotic severity on the part of individual teachers could govern the unruly crowds of the lecture hall.

This condition of things was sufficient, even under the political restraints of that day, to arouse a number of the friends of education to an earnest struggle against it. The most noteworthy of the articles published by these men in 1828 were those of Professors Baumgartner, Ettinghausen, and Ficker, complaining of the compression of the entire study of geometry and physics into three semesters of the philosophical course, of the subordinate position of Latin philology and complete neglect of Greek philology, and of the degraded position of natural and general history. The government, indeed, had never had very strong confidence in the continuance of the new plan of philosophical study, which had been approved at first for only four years, but though these opposing views were received and listened to by the still existing Reform Board, yet no

action was ever taken upon them. It was not until 1837, the third year of the reign of Ferdinand I., that Hallaschka, then superintendent of philosophical studies, could again broach the question of reform. He urged the re-establishment of the three years' course, at least in the higher institutions, and, in general, a return as far as possible to the plan abandoned in 1824, but still retaining German (and Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) as the language of instruction. This was not wholly without result. In 1838, an examination was made into the condition of the gymnasiums, and an expression of opinion as to their improvement was required from all the gymnasial and philosophical directors, prior to any change in the philosophical studies. The opinion in favor of a thorough reform was unanimous, the chief defects being that attention was principally given to the Latin grammar and too little to the means of higher training to be found in a more comprehensive reading of the classics, that the speaking and writing of this language were taught very inefficiently, that the limitation of Greek merely to the grammar made it very distasteful to the pupils, that the instruction in mathematics laid no sufficient basis for the requirements of the first philosophical year, that more stress was laid throughout upon memorizing than upon mental apprehension, and that success was made yet more difficult by the want of any institution for the special training of teachers, by the deficiencies of the old textbooks, and by the over-crowding of the classes.

These views and the accompanying plans of reform were submitted to an able commission appointed in 1841, whose report, in which many of the proposed changes were approved, was received and for the most part accepted by the State Board of Education, but still no measures were taken for carrying them into execution. In 1844, the same commission were called upon for a second expression of their views, who in reply reiterated and defended their former positions. This report, however, gave rise to a discussion of the expediency of a general introduction of the department system of teachers, and induced an inquiry in reply to which three professors of the Vienna and as many of the Prague philosophical department gave an essentially unanimous opinion in its favor. The Board of Education in 1845 fully approved the report of the commission, but limited its action to a reduction of the weekly lessons to eighteen, seven of which were given to Latin, two each to religion, mathematics and German, two to geography and history, one to physics, and two in the four higher classes to Greek. A second commission had at the same time been appointed for the revision of the plan of philosophical study, who adopted essentially the proposition already made in 1837, going back to the system that had been laid aside in 1824, but insisting more decidedly than that had done upon the close connection that should exist between the obligatory philosophical course and the gymnasial studies. The necessity for reform found expression finally also in the press, even under the restrictions of the censorship. But the various projects thus advanced from all sides remained without result till in Octo-

ber, 1847, the distinction of three upper and three lower gymnasial classes was generally allowed, as well as the drawing up of new rules of discipline, and by way of trial the introduction of the reformed plan of gymnasial study, (but with class teachers and a department teacher of mathematics and physics,) was permitted for six years in Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, and Milan. The political revolution of the following year was more radical and more prompt in its operation.

There were at this time in the Empire (not including Lombardy and Venice,) philosophical classes at six universities, five lyceums, and fifteen philosophical schools. The number of gymnasiums was eighty-three. The number of students attending the gymnasiums was 19,657 in 1828, 18,567 in 1838, and 21,612 in 1847, among whom are included 1,597 private pupils. In the same year the number of students pursuing the obligatory philosophical course was approximately 4,770. In Lombardy and Venice, besides the fourteen imperial gymnasiums, there were thirteen communal, twenty-two episcopal, seven "convicts," and eight private gymnasiums, three gymnasial institutes, and twenty-one gymnasial schools. Only the first two classes can be considered as wholly and the next two as partially public institutions, and hence of the 15,540 pupils, 4,426 were private scholars. So the philosophical schools were divided into twelve public, twenty-one episcopal, sixteen convent, and twenty-six private institutions, the pupils in the public and episcopal schools numbering 3,276.

The results of gymnasial instruction up to this time have already been sufficiently indicated, their strongest condemnation being found in the pleas for reform continually urged by the highest educational authorities. In the political revolution that now occurred, rejuvenated Austria found no branch of public instruction so ripe and ready for successful re-organization as the gymnasiums. Feuchtersleben, in his "Outlines of a System of Public Instruction," laid down as the object of the gymnasium an advanced general education, using as a principal means the ancient languages and their literature, annexing to it the philosophical course, and for this purpose making the number of classes eight. The distinction of the upper and lower gymnasiums he based upon the essential difference of instruction in each, giving class teachers to the one and department teachers to the other. The subjects of instruction he made nearly the same as had been settled upon in the previous discussions and reports.

But the most efficient agent in the re-organization of the intermediate schools was Exner, ministerial councillor. Acting when revolution and rapid change were the order of the day, the incorporation of the philosophical course into the gymnasiums located wherever philosophical classes had previously existed, was decreed in August, 1848. The addition of similar classes to other gymnasiums was left to the choice of the communities, but instruction in German and in natural history was introduced into all gymnasiums. This change began with the school year in 1849. The bestowal of the professorship of philology at Vienna upon

Hermann Bonitz, brought to Exner's aid one who united unwonted acuteness and genius for systematizing with an intimate knowledge of the intermediate schools and their wants. From their united exertions sprang the "Plan for the organization of the gymnasiums and real schools of Austria," which was published by the Ministry of Instruction, 16th Sept. 1849. It is necessary here only to indicate the essential points of the reform thus inaugurated. The philosophical course was separated entirely from the higher department and united with the humanity classes to form the "upper gymnasium," from which the "lower gymnasium" was distinct in gradation, serving as a preparatory department in all branches. The gymnasium should afford all the means necessary for attaining a general advanced education, combining thorough mathematics and scientific instruction with philological training and the study of history, the main difficulty being to unite harmoniously the instruction in all the different branches. The board of teachers was made the primary organ of administration; the director, taking the place of the former local director, vice-director, and prefect, became responsible for the uniformity and firmness of the management, and also took part in instruction. A medium was devised between the systems of class and department teachers, by dividing the branches of study into groups in the examination for teacherships, creating the class "ordinarius" as the center of union of each class, and having a classification of the scholars under each study, as well as a general class gradation. Competitive examinations for teacherships were abolished. The hours of study were from twenty-two to twenty-six in a week. The purposeless reading of poor Latin, and the previous waste of time upon poetry and rhetoric, gave place as far as possible to the extended reading of classic authors, while more time was given to Greek, and the claims of the German and of the several provincial languages received full consideration. The study of geography was mostly united with that of history, which was both biographical and chronological in its character. Metaphysics and moral philosophy were deemed suited only to a riper age and the fuller preparation of the university. In the discipline all pupils were upon a common footing, the higher classes holding a different position only as far as would naturally follow from their more advanced age. The eight years' course was closed by a "maturity examination," which was made essential to admission to the universities, and aside from the requirement of this examination the State renounced control of every kind over private instruction in the gymnasial branches.

The energy with which this plan was carried into speedy operation is eminently due to Count Thun, who entered upon this service with an especial predilection, while remarkable efficiency was also shown by the provincial authorities. In 1850, the philosophical classes that had hitherto existed at the universities, lyceums, and philosophical schools, were wholly merged in the gymnasiums, and communities, corporations, and

individuals aided liberally in forming these classes in other places, and in the endowment of new institutions. Seminaries for the training of teachers were shortly opened at Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, Parvia, and Padua, and considerable appropriations were granted for the aid of aspirants to teacherships. To insure uniformity in carrying out the new system of instruction and an interchange of opinions among the teachers, conferences of directors and teachers in all the provinces were encouraged, and chiefly through the exertions of Bonitz a journal devoted to the interests of the gymnasiums was established.

The new organization did not include instruction in religion. Negotiations were entered into by the Minister with the convention of Bishops assembled at Vienna in 1849, and it was agreed that this instruction should be under the direction of the bishops in their respective districts. The old text-books in all branches were at once removed, the bishops discarding also those that had been used in religious instruction, and though the principal dependence was necessarily at first upon books of foreign production, yet measures were immediately taken for the composition and publication within the Empire of suitable text-books of every grade. Moreover, for the furtherance of gymnasial reform, school statistics were found to be an indispensable need, and were taken in hand simultaneously by the Gymnasial Journal and the statistical bureau.

In 1753, Exner fell a sacrifice to his excessive labors, leaving his work still incomplete. His place was supplied by Kleemann. Increased consistency and completeness were gradually given to the new system by additional enactments, and on the 9th of December, 1854, it was decisively approved. To this were added regulations respecting the official rank of teachers, and in 1856 the final law upon the examination of candidates for teacherships.

There was of course no want of violent opposition to the new order of things. A considerable portion of the clergy and of the higher officials sympathized with those who favored an exclusively Austrian nationality. Loud complaints were continually arising of the complete supplanting of the old by the new, of a disposition to favor whatever was of foreign origin, and systematic attempts at Germanization, of the overburdening of the pupils, of the neglect of religious instruction, of a deficiency of Latin instruction, and of the severity of the maturity examination. The Ministry of Instruction opposed with determined earnestness the efforts of the national party, and even went so far beyond the early plan of reorganization as to make the German language an obligatory study at all gymnasiums and the prevalent language of instruction except in Lombardy and Venice. But on the other hand the views of the ministry coincided in many respects with the other demands of the opposition, and subsequent enactments indicated a wavering of purpose in regard to the plan of studies and its operation. This attitude of the government towards its own work was not without its influence upon the agents ap-

pointed for its execution, and from official circles complaints began to arise of the unsatisfactory results of the system. The seminaries, indeed, were actively engaged in their duties, the Journal ably investigated various important questions, and school literature grew in compass and in depth, but many faults in the carrying out of the system, which in the zeal of earlier years had been overlooked, now excited attention and became an element of strength to the opposition.

In 1857 the Ministry of Instruction published a series of proposed modifications, and required the *Gymnasial Journal* to open its columns to a discussion of their merits. The proposals, however, as a whole, found but a single defender, the many remaining writers agreeing that the changes in view would prove substantially an overthrow of the existing system, making the lower gymnasium for the most part a mere Latin school, and removing it from its position as preparatory to the higher, thus again burdening the latter, as the philosophical course had been before, with the whole weight of real instruction, to the certain deterioration of the classical studies. These views were emphatically sustained by other members of the press, and as at the convention of the philologists and schoolmen of Germany, held at Vienna in September, 1858, the weight of their authority was thrown in favor of the existing system and of the assimilation of the Austrian school system to that of Germany, it was continued in operation as before. The only important ordinance of the last year of Thun's ministry, (1859,) again removed from all but the State gymnasiums the prescription of German as the language of instruction in the higher classes.

With the new life that had now been infused into all the relations of the Empire, redoubled activity was shown in multiplying the number of gymnasiums, without aid to any great extent from the State treasury. The number of scholars increased from year to year in all the provinces, notwithstanding the strong feeling in favor of real schools, the increase from 1857 to 1860 being 25 per cent., while that of the population was but 3.3 per cent. The *Gymnasial Journal* labored on vigorously, and a second journal was established in the interests of the gymnasiums and real schools. The dissolution of the Ministry of Instruction in 1860 was accompanied by rumors of intended changes, which disappeared upon the appointment of Schmerling to the position that had been occupied by Thun. The first session of the representative branch of the government (August, 1861,) brought an unexpected assault from the extreme national party in a motion that the lower gymnasium be changed to a burgher school with class teachers, and a substitution, as far as possible, of the national language for the classical, while the upper gymnasium should be changed to a scientific lyceum, and the maturity examination be abolished. The futility of these changes was conclusively demonstrated by Hochegger and Bonitz, and no action was taken upon the motion by the *Reichsrath*. The extreme realistic and utilitarian views of the opposition have since

found expression again and again, but with the majority they have met with no sympathy, and when in the autumn of 1863 a strong effort was made for a closer approach of the gymnasium and real school, it was made evident to all that the existing system had become firmly established and was to be sustained—a result which can not fail to favor increased activity and advanced educational development.

(To be continued.)

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN CALIFORNIA.

1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE following outline of the condition of education, past and present, in the State of California, is derived from one of the most valuable documents of its class that has hitherto claimed the attention of the educators of our country. We refer now to the "*First Biennial Report* of (Hon. JOHN SWETT,) the Superintendent of Public Instruction," a volume of 420 pages.

Superintendent Swett has, in this noble contribution to the interests of national education, laid our whole country under lasting obligations; and it is a highly gratifying indication of its value, that California's younger sister, Nevada, has adopted, for the moulding of her public-school system, that of her elder sister, as matured and perfected by the indefatigable exertions of one whose long professional experience, and peculiar qualifications for his present office, give such force to all his suggestions, whether regarding methods of instruction, or legislative measures for the diffusion of education.

To those of our readers who have not enjoyed opportunity for perusing Mr. Swett's Report, the following summary sketch of the educational progress of California, as a State, will prove, we doubt not, peculiarly interesting:

"The foundation of the public School system of California was laid in the Constitutional Convention, held in Monterey, Sept. 1849.

"The select committee on the State Constitution reported in committee of the whole, in favor of appropriating the five hundred thousand acres of land granted by Congress to new States for the purpose of internal improvements, in addition to the 16th and 36th Sections in each township, to constitute a perpetual School Fund. The adoption of this Report secured to California her school fund and school system.

The State Convention, as adopted, made provision, also, for the election by the people, of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, for the establishment of "a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each district, at least three

months in every year," and for the disposition of lands granted to the State for the use of a University.

San Francisco was the first place in the State to organize a free public school, by its ordinance adopted in 1850, in virtue of which Mr. J. C. Pelton is entitled to the credit of pioneer in that department. In 1851, the city made provision for a City Board of Education and a Superintendent of Schools, under whose direction two schools were opened in December, 1851, in conformity with the State school law passed that year.

In January, 1852, the first Superintendent of public instruction, Mr. John G. Marvin, made his first annual report, recommending a revision of the law of the previous year, an appropriation of \$50,000, together with a school tax of five cents on a hundred dollars, the creation of the office of county superintendents, and the establishment of school libraries.

In 1852, a revised school law was, after some opposition, adopted which embraced many salutary provisions touching the pecuniary interests of the State in connection with the school fund, the introduction of text-books, the examination of teachers, the government of schools, and the annual holding of a teachers' convention.

In 1853, a school fund was further secured by special legislative provision; the cities and counties of the State, were empowered to tax themselves for the support of public schools; and provision was made for securing a share of the school fund to religious and sectarian schools.

On the first of January, 1854, Mr. Paul K. Hubbs was elected as successor to Mr. Marvin, and, in his first annual report, stated that the school fund from the sale of school lands amounted to \$463,000. In a second report for the same year, Mr. Hubbs mentioned the alarming fact, that, notwithstanding the increased average attendance on school, vast numbers of the children of the State were growing up unable to read or write. He recommended also, the establishment of a State Industrial School and a State University.

During the legislative session of 1855, a revised school law was passed, embracing many invaluable provisions proposed in preceding attempts to secure the benefits of a thorough system of public schools, "free to the children of the people, and free from the influence of church or sect." The main features of this bill are retained in the school law of the present day.

In his fifth report, in 1856, Mr. Hubbs adverted to the lamentable fact, that, of the 26,170 resident children reported, only 6,422 formed

the average of daily attendance at the public schools of the State. In his final report, at the close of his term of office, he again urged the establishment of a University with an agricultural department, and of a Military School, the adoption, also, of a uniform system of elementary school books.

In 1857, the new Superintendent, Mr. Andrew J. Moulder, presented, in his first report, the sad fact, that, while the number of schools had increased within four years, nearly seven-fold, the number of teachers nearly nine-fold, the number of children more than three-fold, the semi-annual contribution by the State had dwindled to nearly one-half. In view of this fact, he urged the necessity of increasing the rate of county school tax, a more exact management of district funds, an appropriation for the support of teachers' institutes, and the establishment of a State Industrial school, of a Military Institute, and a University devoted chiefly to the training of engineers, miners, surveyors, geologists, metallurgists, chemists,—practical and scientific,—as best adapted to the immediate wants of California.

Mr. Moulder, in his annual report for 1858, deplored the inadequacy of all public measures as yet adopted for the effective operation of an appropriate school system throughout the State. In proof, he adverted to the glaring fact, that, of the upwards of forty thousand children of the school age, upwards of twenty thousand had not been inside of a public schoolhouse. As measures indispensable to amendment, he recommended that districts should be required to maintain a school for six instead of three months annually, that a better system for the examination of teachers be adopted, and that the county tax should be raised. In furtherance of needed improvement, he prepared a volume of commentaries on the school law of the State, together with suggestions on school architecture and methods of instruction.

In his report for 1859, Mr. Moulder recommended, among other measures of improvement, the establishment of a State normal school, the organization of State and County boards for examining teachers, a further increase of the rate of county school tax, an appropriation for State teachers' institutes, and for traveling expenses, enabling the Superintendent to deliver lectures and visit schools throughout the State. He urged, also, a consolidation of the township school funds into one common fund, as a measure indispensable to the successful operation of the State system of schools.

The State legislature of 1860 gave its sanction to many of the preceding suggestions, and, in particular, authorized the State Super-

intendent to appoint a State board of examination, empowered to grant teachers' certificates, valid for two years. County superintendents were also authorized to appoint county boards of examination, consisting exclusively of teachers, with power to grant teachers' certificates valid for one year. The State board of education was also authorized to adopt a State series of text books, and to enforce their adoption. An appropriation of \$30,000. was also made for building a State reform school at Marysville.

By the school law of 1861, provision was made for the sale of "the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections" of school lands,—the proceeds to be deposited in the State school fund. The auspicious result was, that, in less than a year, nearly two hundred thousand acres were sold, and the proceeds deposited accordingly.

Tracing the progress annually made towards the effective advancement of the public-school system of California, we find the indefatigable State Superintendent, still urging the necessity of ampler provision to render the schools adequate to the work for which they were designed, asking for an appropriation of \$5,000 for a State normal school; publishing the report of the committee on normal schools, appointed by the State Institute of May, 1861, which had been largely attended; reporting favorably on the results obtained by the action of state and county boards for the examination of teachers; asking for the re-enactment of a law requiring the adoption of a State series of school text-books, and for some provision for school libraries.

In 1862, the legislature passed an act establishing a State normal school in the city of San Francisco, and made an appropriation for that purpose, of \$2,000. In his report for this year, Mr. Moulder recommended a measure of the utmost importance to the educational interests of the State, in his plan for funding the indebtedness of the State to the school fund. This measure was carried into effect by the legislative act of April 14th, 1863. By the provisions of this act, "the entire indebtedness of the state to the school fund, with the exception of \$31,000, has been converted into State bonds at seven per cent. The total amount of the State school fund invested in State bonds, six hundred and fifty-one thousand dollars."

Mr. Moulder was succeeded in the office of State Superintendent of public instruction, January 1st, 1863, by Mr. John Swett, so well known to the friends of education throughout the State, as, for ten years, the efficient and successful principal of the Rincon Point school of San Francisco, and an able and distinguished pioneer in the cause of public instruction in California. His peculiar adaptation to the

duties of the honorable office which he now fills, was well known to the officers and students of the Normal Institute of Merrimack, N. H., where he pursued his professional studies with distinguished success; and to his instructors and class-mates, it has been a source of the highest gratification to watch the characteristic energy and efficiency with which he discharges the duties assigned him in his adopted State.

The constitutional amendments adopted by the people of the State of California, in 1862, having cut short his term of office from three years to eleven months, he was re-elected for a term of four years.

His first official report, (that for the year 1863, the thirteenth annual State document of that character,) embraced a mass of statistic material relating to the condition of schools and the educational interests of the State, accompanied by a body of valuable suggestions for the guidance of teachers and officers in the various relations of instruction and administration. We quote from this report a few of its closing words:

"I have endeavored to set forth, in plain words, the defects and the wants of our public-school system. Could I have conscientiously done so, it would have been pleasanter to have found more to commend and less to censure; but unmerited laudation seldom effects needed reforms.

Entering upon another official term, of four years, I am able to comprehend, in some measure, the magnitude of the work to be done; and I assume the task in no spirit of self-confidence. Having devoted my whole life to the profession of teaching—having taught ten years in the public schools of this State—I have an ambition to co-operate with the many earnest and devoted teachers in California, who are striving to awaken public opinion to a truer estimate of the relation of free schools to the future permanence and prosperity of the State, and to a higher estimate of the profession of teaching."

A supplementary and amendatory bill, prepared by Superintendent Swett, and introduced in the Assembly, 1864, by Mr. J. J. Owen, chairman of the committee on education, contained the following among other provisions: "the levying of an annual State school tax of five cents on each hundred dollars of taxable property in the State, to be apportioned in the same manner as the interest of the State school fund; each county to levy a minimum county school tax, equal to two dollars for each child between four and eighteen years of age; the maximum rate of county tax allowed by law to be raised from the previous rate of 25 cents to 30 cents on each one hundred dollars; public-school trustees to levy a direct property tax sufficient to maintain a public school five months in each year, whenever the State and county school money shall be insufficient for that purpose; county superintendents to be authorized to subscribe for a sufficient number of copies of some State educational journal to furnish each board of

school trustees in the State with one copy, at an expense not exceeding one dollar a year."

The bill, of which the above were the prominent provisions, passed the Assembly without opposition, and the Senate by a handsome majority; and the beneficial results were fully evinced by the statistics given in the Biennial Report of the State Superintendent for the school years 1864 and 1865.

From this valuable document we extract the following condensed statement of the progress made in the system of public instruction in California during that period.

At the opening of this report I take pleasure in stating that the criticisms of 1863 no longer apply to our school system, and that the hope expressed in 1864, has been more than realized.

"Notwithstanding the school year closed before the bountiful harvests of the autumn were gathered, and while the State was still suffering from its previous financial prostration, the statistical returns exhibit an educational progress of which all Californians may well be proud."

This favorable statement Mr. Swett proceeds to verify by reference to the educational statistics of the year 1865, as exhibiting an increase of school money raised by taxation alone, over the preceding year, from three and seven-tenths per cent. to ninety-one and seven-tenths per cent., an increase of the average length of schools, equal to nearly one month, of teacher's salaries to sixty per cent.; the amount of school revenue raised to two dollars and fifty-eight cents per census child; of expenditures for school houses an increase of \$164,000; of pupils attending the public schools sixteen per cent.; an increase in the number of free schools of seventy-eight in two years; a discontinuance of "rate bills," extending to half the number of children attending the public schools, the remainder paying an average tuition of twenty-five cents a month. Mr. Swett proceeds to say:

"But there is a vital and intangible aspect which no statistics can exhibit. The strong hold which the schools have taken on public opinion; the greater skill, earnestness, and ability of teachers; the improvement in methods of instruction and classification; the greater interest and enthusiasm of pupils, consequent upon the introduction of better books; the greater interest of parents; the civilizing agency of well conducted public schools in all the little communities of the State—these cannot be expressed in figures nor conveyed in words.

"California has taken her place in the front rank with those States whose material prosperity has been the result of public schools; and it is the duty of every legislator and every statesman to strengthen and perfect a system of schools which shall educate a race of men and women for the next generation that shall inherit, with the boundless resources of the Golden State, something of the energy, enterprise, talent, character and intelligence which have settled and civilized it."

The Report comprises a mass of statistical and financial details of the highest value, but of which our limits do not admit even a synop-

sia. We restrict ourselves to some selections from the prominent topics of the volume which possess peculiar interest :

"In California, male teachers are paid only a fraction more than one-sixth higher monthly wages than female teachers.—I am proud of the fact that in this new State the rights of female teachers are thus regarded. I hope this may long continue, and that many schools now taught by men, will be placed under the instruction of refined, accomplished, intelligent and enthusiastic women.

"It has been my sanguine hope, for many years, that, in this new State, teaching might aspire to the dignity of a profession ; that teachers might learn to combine their strength, respect themselves, command the respect of others, and honor their occupation. I have lived already to see the promise of the future. It has been and is my highest ambition to elevate the profession of teaching ; for I well know that in no other way can the public schools be made the great educators of the State and the Nation. If the citizens of this State desire to have good schools, they must pay professionally trained teachers high salaries. If they want talent, they must buy it."

EDUCATIONAL DIPLOMAS.—"The provision for State educational diplomas was eminently wise and judicious. More than a hundred teachers have secured such certificates, and none have dishonored them. It has done much to foster a spirit of professional pride, and to raise the standard of qualification at the county examinations."

By the "Revised School Law," approved March 24th, 1866, professional diplomas are classified as conferred by State, county, and city boards of examination.

STATE DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES. These professional documents, so valuable alike as pledges of confidence and respect, on the part of the community, as recognizing the value of the teacher's office, and of security to parents and guardians for the competency of individuals to fulfill the duties of the profession, have been too long withheld from the many worthy and accomplished men who have devoted their lives to the vocation of teaching. California thus justly claims the honor of being the first State to confer distinct professional recognition on teachers, as a body pursuing a useful and honorable occupation, well entitled to a definite rank in society.

The revised school law, "section 86," provides for a State board of examination, to consist of the Superintendent of public instruction, as chairman, and four professional teachers appointed by him ; the board to hold two sessions each year, and confer certificates of the following grades : State certificates, "first grade," valid for four years ; "second grade," valid for two years ; "third grade," valid for one year. "Section 87" requires that every applicant for a State diploma, or for a certificate of the "first" or "second" grade, be "critically examined, by written or printed questions, and by additional or oral examination, in algebra, arithmetic, English grammar, English composition, geography, history of the United States, school law of California, physiology, natural philosophy, orthography, de-

fining, penmanship, constitution and government of the United States, reading and elocution, and practice of teaching." Extra credits may be given for ability to teach drawing, vocal and instrumental music, and school calisthenics. For success and experience in teaching, extra credits may be allowed, as the State board of education may determine. "Certificates" shall be issued to such persons only as, in addition to passing examination in the studies herein specified, shall have given evidence of good moral character and fitness for the profession of teaching. State educational "diplomas" shall be issued to such persons only as shall have been employed in the occupation of teaching at least three years; and the holders of said diplomas shall be eligible to teach in any public school in the State, except high schools in which the ancient and modern languages are required to be taught by such teachers. State "certificates" of the "first" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in county schools of the first grade, and in all grammar schools. State "certificates" of the "second" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in second grade schools, and as assistants in grammar schools. State "certificates" of the "third" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in any primary school. The State board of examination shall have power to revoke for immoral or unprofessional conduct, or habitual profanity, intemperance, cruelty, or evident unfitness for the profession of teaching, any diploma or certificate granted by it, and to renew all State certificates at the expiration of the time for which they were granted."

"Section 88," provides that "all regularly issued State normal school diplomas from any State normal school in the United States, and all life diplomas granted by the State board of examination in any of the United States, shall be recognized by the State board of education of this State, as *prima facie* evidence of fitness for the profession of teaching; and the said board shall, on application of the holders thereof, proceed to issue, without examination, State certificates; the grade to be fixed at the option of the board, *provided*, in all cases, satisfactory evidence be given of good moral character and correct habits. All applicants for State diplomas or certificates, shall pay an examination fee of two dollars, which shall be appropriated to the support of the State Educational Journal."

"Section 89," proceeds thus: "In order to elevate the profession of teaching and advance the interests of public schools, the State board of education shall grant teachers' life diplomas, which shall remain valid during the life of the holder, unless revoked by the said board for immoral or unprofessional conduct, or want of qual-

ifications to teach. Said diploma shall be granted to such persons only as shall have taught one year successfully after receiving a State educational diploma from the State board of examination, or who shall have held for one year, after receiving a State diploma, the office of State, county, or city superintendent. Applicants for life diplomas shall file with the State board of examination, certificates of their success in teaching; and said board, after due consideration and examination, shall present the application to the State board of education, with a recommendation either for or against its being granted. The State board of education may recognize the life diplomas of other States of the United States, and issue to the holders thereof life diplomas of this State. Each applicant for a State life diploma shall pay the sum of five dollars to defray the expense of filling out and issuing the diploma."

The close attention to details in these enactments, indicates the careful consideration with which the measures contemplated have been prepared. The results already secured place the State of California on high vantage ground, as a field of educational labor, inviting the attention of all worthy candidates for the office of teachers; and the State cannot fail to reap a rich reward for the noble spirit of enterprise which, in this respect, it has manifested. Its popular designation, "the Golden State," will, ere many years shall have elapsed, bear a new and higher meaning, referring to "riches that perish not with the using." In coming years, the other and older States in which but a partial progress has as yet been made toward the results already secured in California, will gratefully acknowledge the benefits derived from the influence of her example."

The limits necessarily set to a single article in this Journal, preclude the introduction of much valuable matter which we should be glad to transfer to our pages. We can at present attempt no more than a brief mention of prominent topics presented in the revised school law from which our preceding extracts have been made.

2. ABSTRACT OF REVISED SCHOOL LAW OF 1866.

"Section 1," prescribes that "there shall be a STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, which shall consist of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, the principal of the State normal school, the superintendent of public schools of the city and county of San Francisco, the superintendents of common schools of the respective counties of Sacramento, Santa Clara, and San Joaquin, and of two professional teachers, who shall be nominated by the superintendent of public instruction, and elected by and with the advice of said board, *provided*, that no teacher shall be eligible to such election unless he is a holder of a State educa-

tional diploma." "The governor shall be the president, and the superintendent of public instruction the secretary of the board." "No member of said board shall receive any compensation for his services."

"Sec. 2," enacts that "the State board of education shall have power to adopt a course of study, and rules and regulations for all public schools in the State, *provided*, that such rules shall not be enforced in conflict with special rules and regulations adopted by the board of education of any city, or any city and county; to adopt and prescribe regulations and a list of books suitable for school district libraries; to grant teachers' life diplomas, and prescribe regulations for the examination of teachers by State, city or county boards of examination; to adopt a uniform system of text books to be used in all public schools; to have and use a common seal; and to authorize the printing, by the State printer, of all regulations and circulars necessary to carry their provisions into effect."

"Sec. 3," provides that "the SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION shall, at the special election for judicial officers, to be held in the year 1867, and every four years thereafter at such special election, be elected by the qualified voters of the State, and shall enter upon the duties of his office on the first day of December next after his election. He shall be paid a salary of \$3000.00 per annum, and shall have power to appoint a clerk, who shall be paid a salary of \$1800.00 per annum, and who shall be authorized to act as deputy superintendent."

By "Sec. 4." it is made the duty of the Superintendent to "report to the governor biennially on the first of November of the years in which the regular session of the Legislature is held." This section of the school law provides in detail for the transmission of the report to the legislature, for its appropriate distribution to official persons, to district libraries, for the depositing of copies in the State library, &c. The report, it is enacted, "shall contain a statement of the condition of public schools in the State, full statistical tables, by counties, showing the number of school children in the State, the number attending public schools and the average attendance, the number attending private schools, and the number not attending school;" the apportionment of the State school fund, together with the other sources of revenue for school purposes; "the amount expended for salaries of teachers, and for building school houses; a statement of plans for the management and improvement of schools; a statement of the condition of the State normal school, of the State agricultural college, of all incorporated literary institutions required to report to him; of the educational departments of the State reform school, the asylum for the deaf and dumb and blind, and the several orphan asylums, and other educational institutions to which State appropriations may be made."

"Sec. 5," makes provision for the apportionment, by the superintendent, to the several school districts, counties, and cities, of the school moneys, according to the data of the State Controller's report. "Sec. 6," prescribes the preparation by the superintendent, of "suitable printed forms for making all reports and conducting all necessary proceedings under the revised school law," including forms of diplomas, certificates, and school registers; the printing, in pamphlet form, of all school laws, with the requisite forms for making reports and conducting school business; the course of study, rules and regulations, and list of text books and library books, adopted and prescribed by the State board of education, together with "such suggestions on school architecture as he may deem useful."

"Sec. 8," requires of the superintendent that he shall, as ex-officio, one of the

trustees of such institutions, visit and report on the *asylum for the deaf and dumb and blind, the State reform school and orphan asylums*, with reference to their modes of management and systems of instruction.

"Sec. 9," requires of the superintendent "that he devote four months of each year for the purpose of visiting schools throughout the State, consulting with county superintendents, lecturing before county institutes, and addressing public assemblies on subjects pertaining to public schools."

We add a few brief extracts regarding the office of "**COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF COMMON SCHOOLS.**"

These officers are to "be elected in each county at the general election in 1867 and every two years thereafter," to "take office on the first Monday of March next succeeding their election, and hold for two years." The revised school law makes it the duty of each county superintendent to "*apportion all school moneys to the school districts as soon as practicable after the State apportionment has been made, and to make quarterly apportionments thereafter.*"

"Sec. 16," of the revised school law empowers and requires each county superintendent as follows: 1. "*To visit each school in his county at least once a year*; 2, *to distribute promptly all reports, forms, laws, circulars, and instructions, which he may receive for the use of school officers, from the department of instruction or the State board of education*; 4, *to preside over county teachers' institutes*; 5, *to enforce the course of study and the use of text-books adopted by the State board of education*; 6, *to enforce the rules and regulations required in the examination of teachers*; 7, *to keep on file and preserve in his office the biennial reports of the superintendent of public instruction, and a file of the State Educational Journal, adopted in pursuance of law*; 8, *to keep a record of his official acts and of the acts of the county board of examination*; 9, *to carefully preserve all reports of school officers and teachers,*" and other official documents, "and at the close of his official term to deliver them to his successor."

"Sec. 17," secures a compliance with these requisitions, by a penalty of forfeiture of \$100.00 from the official salary, in case of failure.

By "Sec. 20," the county superintendent is authorized to require of the trustees of school districts *to see to all proper repairs*, and other arrangements for decency and comfort regarding the condition of school buildings, and, in case of neglect on their part, to see all requisite arrangements made at the expense of the given district.

"Sec. 21," makes it the duty of the county superintendent, whenever the number of school districts in any county is ten or more, to hold at least *one teachers' institute in each year*, and of every teacher employed in a public school in the county, to attend every such institute, and participate in its proceedings. Each session of such institute to continue not less, than three nor more than five days; and the superintendent to secure, if practicable, lecturers and instructors competent to instruct teachers in the theory and practice of teaching."—In the words of this section of the revised school law, "Every board of trustees and every board of education shall not only allow but shall require the teachers in its employ to attend every teachers' institute held in the county; and when the institute is held during the time that teachers may be employed in teaching, their pay shall not be diminished by reason of attendance on such institute. For the payment of the expenses of the institute, a sufficient sum, not exceeding one hundred dollars in any one year, shall be paid, on the warrant of the superintendent, out of the unapportioned county school fund."

"Sec. 22," makes a judicious provision for securing *appropriate school buildings*, by requiring of each county superintendent that he shall furnish his office with such works on school architecture as may be prescribed by the State board of education; that no school house shall be erected unless the trustees first submit the plan to the county superintendent; and that in all plans, regard shall, as far as practicable, be had to "taste, convenience, durability, and economy."

Under the head of "SCHOOL ELECTIONS AND TRUSTEES," "Sec. 35," provides that "an annual school meeting for the election of school trustees shall be held in each district on the last Saturday of June in each year;" "the election to be conducted, as far as practicable, in the form and manner of the general election."

"Sec. 36," regulates the term of office of trustees, requiring that "in all organized districts in which elections have been previously held, one trustee shall be elected for the term of three years, and if there are vacancies to be filled, a sufficient number to fill them for the unexpired terms." "In new districts, acting under trustees appointed by the county superintendent, three trustees shall be elected for one, two, and three years respectively."

"Sec. 39," requires that "each board of trustees shall, within ten days after the annual election," "proceed to elect one of their number clerk of the board, who shall be known and referred to as 'district clerk,' whose duty it shall be to record all proceedings of the board," and to keep an accurate account of all receipts and expenditures of school moneys.

"Sec. 40," authorizes the people of the district to vote, at the annual election for trustees, a tax not exceeding half a mill on the dollar of the taxable property of the district, for the purpose of paying any debt of the district, or for a school library, or for furniture and apparatus.

"Sec. 42," empowers and requires every board of trustees and any board of education to employ and dismiss teachers, and to fix, alter, and order paid their salaries and compensations; to make and enforce rules for the government of schools, pupils, and teachers, and to enforce the course of study prescribed in the State law; to provide and pay for, out of the school moneys, school furniture and apparatus; to suspend or expel pupils from school; to provide books for indigent children; to require all pupils to be furnished with suitable books; to provide library and cabinet cases; to enforce the exclusive use of the State series of text books, and the course of study prescribed by the State board of education; to require teachers to attend county or city institutes, and to make such annual reports as may be required by the superintendent of public instruction.

In these and other requisitions, the thorough-going strictness of the revised law, in its practical details, commends itself to the hearty approbation of every mind well informed on topics connected with the value and actual working of a State system judiciously adopted to common schools.

"Sec. 44," authorizes boards of trustees and boards of education to grade and organize their schools into primary, grammar, and high school departments as circumstances, in each case, may require; preference, however, being always given to the adequate support of primary schools.

"Sec. 61," ordains that, for the purpose of protecting the health of young children, no school for children under eight years of age shall be continued in session more than four hours a day, exclusive of intermission, and no school whatever more than six hours a day, exclusive of an intermission at noon.

"Sec. 62," requires that "all pupils admitted into public schools shall comply

with the regulations established in pursuance of law for the government of such schools, shall pursue the required course of study, and shall submit to the authority of the teachers of such schools. Continued and willful disobedience, and open defiance of the authority of the teacher, shall constitute good cause for *expulsion* from school; and habitual profanity and 'vulgarity,' good cause for *suspension* from school. Any pupil who shall in any way cut, deface, or otherwise injure any school house, fences or outbuildings thereof, shall be liable to suspension and punishment; and the parents of such pupils shall be liable for damages, on complaint of the teacher or trustees."

The youth of California will thus, we may hope, be saved from the sarcasms hitherto so justly leveled at the Yankee and his whittling propensities.

Among the salutary regulations adopted for the guidance of TEACHERS, the revised law requires that every teacher shall make an *annual report* to the county superintendent, in the form and manner and on the blanks prescribed by the superintendent, as a condition of receiving the last month's stipulated compensation for his or her services. The same condition applies to the proper keeping of a *school register* in the form prescribed by the State.

"Sec. 65" provides that "no teacher shall be entitled to draw for salary any school moneys, unless such teacher shall be employed by a *majority of the trustees*, nor unless the holder of a legal *State, city, or county teachers' certificate* in full force and effect."

The youthful and vigorous State of California has not, it would seem, been troubled with seeing "a lion in the path" of improvement, as regards the matter of professional diplomas. In this respect she has set a worthy example to some of her older sisters, who have labored under the apprehension which Solomon speaks of as characterizing a certain class of persons.

A valuable security is provided for all California teachers, in "Section 66" of the revised school law, which limits a school month to *twenty school days*, or four weeks of *five school days* each, and exempts all teachers from professional labor on the annual recurrence of the Fourth of July, the First of January, Christmas day, the days of special and judicial election, and such days of fasting or thanksgiving as may be appointed by the President of the United States, or the Governor of California.

"Sec. 67," deals successfully with matters which have been found exceedingly troublesome in other States. It provides that every teacher shall have power to hold every pupil to a *strict accountability*, in school, for any disorderly conduct on the way to or from school, or on the play grounds of the school, or during intermission or recess; to *suspend from school* any pupil for good cause, *provided*, that such suspension shall be reported by the teacher to the trustees as soon as practicable; and if such action is not sustained by them, the teacher may appeal to the county superintendent, whose decision shall be final, whether for or against expulsion.

"Secs. 68 and 69," confer on teachers, in case of revocation of certificate or of dismissal, the right of *appeal to the State board of examination, or to the State board of education*.

"Sec. 70," repeats, in spirit, the noble sentiments of the Fathers of New England, regarding the obligation of teachers as to *moral instruction*. "It shall be the duty of all teachers to endeavor to impress on the minds of their pupils the

principles of morality, worth, justice, and patriotism; to teach them to avoid idleness, profanity, and falsehood; and to instruct them in the principles of a free government, and to train them up to a true comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of American citizenship."

"Sec. 77," appropriates \$16,000 each year to support a State Normal School, under the management of a Board of Trustees, consisting of the members of the State Board of Education, (except the Principal of the school, who is *ex-officio*, a member of the Board of Education). Of these Trustees, the Superintendent is executor, agent and secretary, who must visit the school, enforce rules of the Board, and require monthly reports of the teachers. It is made the duty of the Principal to submit a detailed report, which, if printed, he must forward a copy to each Normal School in the United States. He must attend and lecture to County Institutes on matters relating to public-schools, and the profession of teaching.

"Sec. 78," authorizes and directs each County Superintendent, and County Treasurer to set apart ten per cent. of each annual apportionment, (to the extent of fifty dollars,) from "District School Library Fund," to be expended with such sums as may be added thereto by subscription or donation, for the purchase of such books as shall be authorized by the State Board of Education. In cities and towns not districted, the sum of \$50 for every five hundred children between the ages of five and fifteen years, must be set apart and expended.

"Sec. 84," makes it the duty of the Superintendent to subscribe annually for a Monthly Journal of Education, for each county and city Superintendent, and for each District Clerk and school library, in which Journal there must be a department devoted to the official circular, instructions and decisions of the State school officers.

"Sec. 85," instructs the State Superintendent to convene, annually, a State Teachers' Institute, to continue in session from three to five days, and appropriates \$500 for the necessary expenses of the same.

"Sec. 86," constitutes the State Superintendent, and four professional teachers a State Board of Examination, with power to hold two sessions annually, and to grant State Certificates for six, four, two and one year; the County Superintendent, and the teachers associated with himself, a County Board of Examination; and the City Superintendent and the President of the Board of Education of each city, and three public school teachers holding a State diploma of such city, elected by the city Board of Education—a city Board of Examination.—Each Board of Examination can issue Diplomas which shall be valid within their respective territorial limits, for such period and time, as shall be expressed therein.

"Sec. 96," levies and directs to be collected and paid in the same manner as other State Taxes, an annual *ad valorem* tax of eight cents on each one hundred dollars value of all taxable property throughout the State. The Board of Supervisors of each county shall annually levy a school tax of at least thirty-five cents for each one hundred dollars, or three dollars for each child in the county between the ages of five and fifteen. There is nothing so liberal in the way of school taxation in any other State in the world.

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWEDEN.

OUTLINE OF SYSTEM AND STATISTICS.

THE system of Public Instruction in Sweden, consists of—I. Two Universities; II. Secondary Schools, Grammar Schools, and Practical Schools; III. Primary Schools, or schools for the people.

I. There are two universities, Upsala, with an average attendance of 1000 students, and Lund, with about 450 students. At the head of each university is the Chancellor, who is always a person of rank, elected by the professors and confirmed by the king. The present Crown Prince holds this office in both institutions. The professors embrace the four faculties—theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. To each faculty belong a number of stipendiary professors and assistant lecturers. Attendance on the lectures is not compulsory on the students, nor are they required to remain for any specified time. Every candidate for any degree conferred by the university, must pass a satisfactory examination.

II. Secondary instruction is given in "Schools of Learning" (*Lärarskolor* and *Gymnasia*). The former, is a lower grade of *Gymnasium*. Both are classical schools; and in the two, the pupils are instructed in religion, geography, history, writing, mathematics, Latin and Greek, the German and French languages, and the elements of natural history. Besides these, there is a class of schools, called *Apologist Schools*, in which the course of instruction is as thorough as in the *Gymnasium*, except in the classics. According to an official report in 1843, there were twelve *Gymnasia*, forty-one *Schools of Learning*, forty *Apologist Schools*, and two *Cathedral Schools*, connected with the universities. All these institutions are almost entirely supported by the State; the government appropriating nearly \$100,000 a year for salaries of teachers. In these schools the children of the gentry, governmental officials, and professional families, are educated, but are not closed to any child qualified to enter.

III. The government as early as 1684, in order to make the lowest form of instruction universal, ordered that before any person could be admitted to the rite of confirmation, (which was necessary to marriage,) the curate should be satisfied of his or her ability to read; and up to 1822, the peasantry of Sweden was thought to be the most intelligent in Europe. But in consequence of inquiries instituted about that time by a voluntary association, it was found that home and parochial school

V. STUDY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY REV. HENRY W. DAY, D. D.

COMPOSITION, OR THE ART OF THINKING, AND EXPRESSING THOUGHTS CORRECTLY AND EFFECTIVELY IN SPOKEN OR WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

THROUGHOUT the whole range of educational discussion there is, at the present time, no question more importunately demanding investigation than this:—How should composition be taught in our schools and seminaries, our academies and colleges? It is safe to say that in no other department of instruction is there equal deficiency and failure; in no other department is there equal ignorance of what a proper mode of teaching and learning is; in no other, is there equal dissatisfaction with results on the part of both teacher and pupil. Yet if the culminating object and aim in intellectual culture be power to think and to speak and write correctly and effectively, that department of instruction which aims directly at the development of this power should outrank all others in importance.

Composing is as properly an art as is ciphering. It is, to say the least, as difficult an art; and, certainly, if the true end and object of all education be had in view, it must be admitted to be deserving equal time, equal care and labor—equal consideration every way on the part of teacher and pupil. What now would be thought of a system of education which should treat ciphering—arithmetical computation, as composition-writing is generally treated in our institutions of learning, higher and lower? Suppose in our schools the requisition should be given out, without any preparatory instruction, without a hint or suggestion otherwise, that every pupil should on every Wednesday afternoon, or on the Wednesdays of alternate weeks, present a ciphering. Pupils that had witnessed such spectacles before,—the others would probably be excused at the first performance,—might have, we may conjecture, a shadowy notion of what was intended in the requisition. Such, we may suppose, if at least they were faithful and eager to learn, would come, after racking their brains through all the leisure hours of the week, and torturing parents, brothers, and sisters at home, and older fellow-pupils at school, on the dreaded Wednesday afternoon with a ciphering to be

exhibited. The older performers would present, perhaps, a long sum in division; and the younger would hope to satisfy conscience and the teacher with some rows of figures well-formed and properly arranged. The ciphering papers after having been read amid the blushes, the tremblings, the falterings of the performers, should be gathered up by the teacher to be scrutinized, corrected, and marked in respect of merit. The corrections should consist of some marks of a pen or pencil to the effect that this figure is not perfectly formed; that a sign of subtraction is omitted here, or the wrong sign for addition placed there; that here the horizontal, and there the perpendicular row of figures is not straight and true; that this figure is placed one degree too far to the right, and that, one degree too far to the left; that the sum of these two figures, or the difference between those two is not correctly stated; and should be indicated through some conventional signs on the ciphering paper, and then be returned to the pupil with no further word of instruction or explanation. Suppose the whole course of instruction, from beginning to end, should be made up of these Wednesday afternoon presentations and these penciled criticisms. What kind of arithmeticians should we expect from such teaching and training? How much satisfaction would be felt with such instruction in ciphering by teacher or by pupil? Would utter disgust with the whole procedure be strange or unreasonable? And yet is this any caricature of composition-teaching in many, if not in most schools?

In some cases, it is true, the teacher tries to do something more. A theme is proposed, or a list of themes from which one is to be selected by the pupil. This would be perfectly paralleled in teaching arithmetic by the teacher's giving out a line or lines of figures on which the pupil should cipher and bring in at the Wednesday presentation, ciphering papers with these figures ciphered out—nothing being indicated as to any process or any result; whether the figures are to be added or subtracted; whether multiplied or divided, or what was definitely to be done with the figures. In fact, as to any previous teaching in any way, the pupil should be left in utter ignorance what multiplication or even addition is, or how to be performed. His task should be not to add specifically, not to multiply, not to compute interest,—not to perform any arithmetical process in particular, much less attain any result as the amount due on a promissory note bearing interest, or the cost of commodity at so much a yard, or pound, or bushel; but only to bring in a ciphering paper. This paper must have a certain number of figures on it perhaps; the figures must

be well formed, well arranged; if addition or division is ventured on, the sum or the quotient must be placed below or at the right hand, and the signs must be correctly placed. But any process is admissible, and no criticism or instruction as to the nature of the process should ever find entrance into the method of teaching. This is no caricature of a mode of teaching composition when more than ordinary care and interest are taken in it by the teacher. Is it strange that the writing of compositions is turned away from in disgust and inexpressible aversion? that in the views of so many judicious teachers the practice should be condemned and reprobated?

Composing is as perfectly an art as ciphering—as computation. As an art it necessarily implies that something is to be done under intelligible guidance; something to be done for some definite intelligible object; something to be done in some rational way that can be pointed out. As an art it admits of guiding principles and rules that must regulate the whole procedure in order that it may be successful;—in order that that which it proposes to have done, may be done well. Like ciphering, composing is an art, that, as applicable to a great diversity of uses, embraces a great diversity of processes. These processes are widely diverse from one another, as much so as are addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as are evolution, involution, reduction of fractions, computation of interest, mensuration of surfaces and solids. It is just as irrational to attempt to teach composition as to teach arithmetic simply by assigning general exercises without indication of the precise object to be accomplished and of the nature of the particular process by which that object is to be accomplished. It is just as irrational, thus, to require from every pupil on each alternate Wednesday a composition without further specification as to the object of the essay, and with no instruction as to the process to be applied as it would be to require a ciphering exercise without such specification and instruction, and with the expectation that alike in each case the pupil is to acquire the art simply by such a method. It is just as irrational to prescribe such a composition exercise even with the additional help of an assigned theme as it would be to give out an exercise in ciphering with only an assigned line of figures to cipher upon, and with no further teaching as to object or process.

In the acquisition of every art, as in all human culture, there is an indispensable condition prescribed in the very nature of the human mind as subject to *growth*. The mind begins in infantile weakness, and by slow and successive degrees only attains to full and perfect

maturity. All right teaching, every successful teacher must intelligently adopt this fundamental principle of growth and the method which it imposes. The pupil must be borne along from the simplest element of the art, step by step, one element at a time—in a steady unfolding of the art, to the goal of a perfect attainment of it. To effect this the teacher must know the path from the starting-point to the goal; must intelligently keep his pupil in this path and adapt his teaching to each successive stage of progress. The prevalent mode of teaching composition ignores and tramples on this fundamental law of culture. It knows no beginning, no ending; no starting-point, no goal. The beginner and the proficient are assigned the same exercise and receive the same instruction, whether it be preparatory, if indeed any such instruction be given at all, or whether it be in the way of criticism and correction of exercises already finished by the pupil.

The external condition of all culture, corresponding to this internal condition, is equally ignored and disregarded. This external condition prescribes that the pupil be guided by the teacher to the practice which the particular art involves. The pupil must be put on doing, and know from his teacher precisely what he is to do. There must be practice, and there must be instruction, rule, to guide that practice. This instruction and rule may be procured, indeed, from books as well as from the lips of the teacher. The text-book may be more or less in place of teacher. But the instruction, the rule must be given, or there must be blind groping, stumbling, failure, on the part of the learner.

The combination of these two conditions directs at once to the only method of teaching that can promise success;—that the pupil be led along, step by step, in clear instruction and firm guidance, practicing element after element in the art until each successively be mastered, from the simplest on to the most complicated procedures in the art. In this way, other arts, arithmetic, music, are now most successfully taught. In this way composition may be taught with equal success and with equal satisfaction to both teacher and learner.

We proceed now to indicate in detail how this tried and accepted method may be applied to the teaching of composition.

There are two very distinguishable stages in the acquisition of an art which a wise method will ever broadly discriminate. There is, first, the elemental stage. In arithmetic, it embraces what are called the ground rule—those of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, with the introductory rule of notation. In composition this

stage embraces the rules of sentence-construction proper, with the introductory rules, corresponding exactly to those of arithmetical notation, of capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing. This elemental stage is covered by the science of grammar, as it is ordinarily understood. The second stage embraces the various general processes in which these elemental processes are applied to some proposed object. Thus in arithmetic, we have the rules of proportion, evolution, involution, reduction of fractions, and the like. In composition we have the rules of discourse proper, which are embraced in more or less perfect form in our familiar rhetorical treatises.

Now as in learning arithmetic, the pupil should first be put upon learning the ground-rules, after beginning with some rudimentary study of notation, and should learn successively each rule by itself, so in learning to speak and write he should begin with the rudimental principles of rhetorical notation, so to call it, embracing capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing, and then learn separately and successively the several parts of sentence-construction proper. And here experience prompts the remark that two or three thoroughly taught lessons in these rules of rhetorical notation, at the very beginning, will save teacher and pupil incalculable trouble in the further practice of writing, as well as be of inestimable service in working into the mind of the pupil that most vital condition of successful writing—the idea of a progress by stages in all correct discourse.

With the rudiments of what may figuratively be called rhetorical notation—of capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing—familiarily and thoroughly mastered, the pupil is prepared to begin upon the simplest element in sentence-construction.

But here it becomes necessary to take up and carry with us a correct and also a clear notion of what sentence-construction is—of what we do when we construct a sentence, in order to determine what is the first and simplest element, and what are the successive, more complicated elements in their proper order, and also in order to determine how we are to deal with each. When we construct a sentence then we put a thought into appropriate words, as in constructing discourse we put thought into words for some proposed rational object. We have then in all composition two elements to deal with—the thought and the word—and of these elements the thought is the important element, the vital, the properly organic element. We use the word but for the thought's sake. Nay, the thought has determined the shape and character of the word itself; the particular thought-form has created and shaped the particular word-form. To

teach composition, to teach sentence-construction by limiting the views of the learner to the word, while excluding or even relatively depressing the thought, is preposterous, is fatal, as much so as it would be to teach arithmetic in such a way as to make the pupil think that figure-making is all there is in ciphering. The quantity denoted by the figure, the thought expressed in the word, must ever be kept prominent, and be treated as the vital and organic element. The pupil must first understand what he is to express, what he is to say or write, then seek for the proper mode of expression. In other words, in any true method of learning composition, the thought-form must first be studied, then the word-form which language has provided for the embodiment or expression of that thought-form.

Beginning with the most elemental thought-form, the pupil should be conducted step by step successively through each of the great elemental thought-forms as they are now presented to us in our more matured systems of logic, with their various modifications so far at least as they determine peculiar forms of words, and in such a way that he shall attain a familiar practical mastery of those elemental forms of thought in connection with those word-forms which language has appropriated to each respectively. Logic has now given us the exact enumeration of these general thought-forms, and the distinctive characters that belong to each, together with the principles that determine all the general modifications of these general thought-forms. It is now practicable, consequently, to found all the forms of word-expression as given us in grammar in their proper thought-forms, and thus to present the whole subject of sentence-construction in the clearest, exactest scientific method. Not only this, but the recent advances in logical science enable us to account for the rise of the particular word-forms which it is the province of grammar to enumerate and explain, and to set forth the reasons why these forms of words, these parts of speech, are such as they are and not different. In short, in the light which is now shed upon the nature and forms of our thinking, grammatical science is enabled to unfold all its principles and explain all its forms by a clear reference to the nature of the thought which underlies and determines, or to speak more significantly, which organizes all language.

It is pertinent here to introduce a word or two in reference to the proper relation of the study of grammar to training in composition-writing. Our systems of grammar are all *sciences* of language, not proper *arts*. A proper art aims definitely at *doing, producing, constructing* something. Its characteristic method is the synthetic, the

constructive method. It fastens on the essential faculty concerned in the art, as for instance, the faculty of song, the faculty of computation, the faculty of thinking, the faculty of discoursing, or the like, and develops that faculty by appropriate practice in successive processes involved in the art, proceeding from the more elemental to the more complicated. A science aims at explaining, informing, enlightening the intelligence. Its characteristic method is the analytic. It fastens upon the product, the result, and separating it into convenient parts, explains the nature or describes the elements of each of these parts successively. Our grammatical treatises, thus, take language as a product, a result. They dissect it into its parts and treat distinctly of sentences, their kinds and characters, of parts of speech, their number, characteristics, modifications, and the like.

Now such grammars, such scientific treatises on language, are doubtless very useful and very valuable. Language, as the product of the legitimate workings of the human mind, of the proper rational life, is as worthy of scientific study as are fruits, or foliage, or the products of vegetable life. So grammars of particular languages, grammars of the Greek, of the Latin, of any foreign language, where not the use of the language in speaking or writing but a mere knowledge of it is chiefly aimed at, are of inestimable value and worth. But although unquestionably valuable auxiliaries to a correct and facile use of a language in actual conversation or discourse, they never suffice to this end. Probably few among our best scholars would venture writing or speaking in a foreign dialect of which they might have attained the completest mastery as to its characters and forms, unless after a special training. From the very nature of the case we should anticipate such a result from the study of grammar as a science and not as an art, as was at a recent state convention of teachers acknowledged by one of the body in his somewhat paradoxical statement that "no man or woman ever learned to speak or write the English language from the instruction he or she received in grammar in school; it can not be done." That the study of grammar as generally taught has some utility, it is unreasonable to doubt. It gives at least some knowledge of the nature of language. But it would be quite as unreasonable to expect from such a study the attainment of much power or skill in the use of the language—in speaking or writing it—in the construction of discourse.

It will not probably be denied by any that the great end in studying every vernacular language should be to acquire the power to use the language correctly and effectively. This is not the end generally

proposed in studying foreign languages ; especially is it not the commanding end in the study of the Greek and the Latin languages. The grammars of these languages have not been constructed with reference to that end, but almost exclusively with reference to the power of interpreting the literature of the Greeks and the Romans, not to skill of authorship in these languages. But these grammars of the classical tongues have been the models and patterns after which our vernacular grammars have been designed and elaborated. They are, accordingly, sciences of the language, not arts. But what is most needed in the study of the English language with us, and especially in our public schools and seminaries, is that which is properly to be taught as an *art* of English discourse, and the whole procedure in the construction of a suitable text-book should be the reverse of that in a science—the reverse of that adopted in our classical grammars. It should be, as already indicated, in the synthetic method, proceeding from element to element in systematic order, with suitable practice on each in succession till it is thoroughly mastered for use. The difference between the two modes may be well exemplified in the study of arithmetic as a science or as an art. Let a pupil study arithmetic as a proper science,—in the form, for instance, in which it is unfolded in the publications of the Society for the diffusion of useful knowledge ; let him perfectly master every principle and understand every doctrine thoroughly of arithmetical science as there so ably set forth. He would not yet be able to solve a very slightly complicated problem in Proportion with all such scientific knowledge. A skill, a tact is requisite which no mere scientific knowledge can impart. He might understand all the principles of computation, and yet not be able to compute so as to compete with any school-boy.

It is still true that a good practical arithmetician ought to understand the science that underlies his art, and, in like manner, the student in composition ought to understand grammar as a science—ought to be versed in the principles of the language. English grammar ought then to be taught in all our schools as a true art—as an art constructed on truly scientific grounds, but shaped and developed throughout, not as a science but as an art, just as arithmetic is in fact. It should be learned in learning to compose. In fact, a true art of composition is nothing but grammar regarded as an art. In this way of learning, not only would what should be the great commanding end in the study of grammar, viz : skill in speaking and writing, be best attained ; but in connection with this, the science itself of the language, which is all that is proposed in our ordinary grammatical

treatises, would also be acquired. Moreover, the study itself, instead of being as now a disgust and a drudgery, would be made most attractive and interesting, because its utility would be seen in every step of the study; and likewise, the grounds and reasons for all grammatical teachings would be brought into clear light. Pursued scientifically, that is analytically and from the word-form, the study must ever remain dry and forbidding, and therefore comparatively unprofitable to the immature mind, unequal to scientific speculations. Pursued as an art from the thought as the organic principle of language, all becomes clear and the developing mind moves on in sympathy with the developing art.

This, then, is the proper mode of teaching composition in its first stage of proper sentence-construction. After a suitable drilling in rhetorical notation—in capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing,—the pupil should be exercised on each general form of thought successively in connection with the appropriate form of word which language has provided for that form of thought. He should be trained in suitable exercises copiously provided for the purpose, precisely as is done in our best arithmetics under each rule, on each leading modification of these general forms of thought with the particular word-form which language has for each. This will take him through all the principles—through the science of grammar, although skill, not mere knowledge, has been the one commanding aim in the study. He will have acquired, thus, not merely science, but what is incomparably more valuable, skill in thinking, skill in expression. His attention having been directed on the thought as the controlling element in speaking and writing, he will not only have received a most valuable training in the power to deal with thought, and a most valuable training in the command of verbal expression; but he will, in addition, have been led along a path in which he must have ever been constrained to look out understandingly upon the true relationship between thought and language. He will be in no danger of coming gradually to sink thought in words, to mistake learned terms, brilliant images, rounded periods for good writing;—in no danger of “growing in expression and dwindling in notion,” to use the pithy language of Berkeley, as he is in the study of grammar and of rhetoric in the manner usually pursued. The thought to be expressed will be to him the main thing; and the verbal expression will be to him good or poor according as it well or ill embodies the thought to be expressed. He will relish criticism; he will understand and appreciate criticism, as he will have been trained ever to be looking for the appropriate verbal embodiment of the thought.

The second grand stage in the art of composing is that in which the rational object for which we speak or write comes in for distinct and prominent treatment. The pupil has now passed the proper elemental stage—the stage analogous to that covered by the four ground rules of arithmetic; he is supposed to have mastered by sufficient practice on each elementary process the entire art of sentence-construction. He is now to be trained in the art of constructing discourse, which employs the rules of sentence-construction as Proportion and Evolution employ the four ground rules of arithmetic. Now in discourse, as in arithmetical computation, there are divers specific objects to be accomplished, and there are accordingly divers processes to be used in accomplishing these objects. The pupil, then, is first to have the idea of an object in his writing fixed firmly and controllingly in his mind. This is vital. It is chiefly because no distinct object is before his mind in writing compositions as prescribed in our schools and colleges, that these exercises are to the learner so repulsive and so unprofitable. Nothing is more repulsive to a rational spirit than an objectless task. The same exercise that without conscious object would be the most disgusting drudgery, will be prosecuted with bounding enthusiasm when inspired by an apprehended object in it. A single fact will illustrate this general remark. In one of our leading colleges, a student, otherwise faithful and exemplary, as well as highly successful in his studies, from his invincible repugnance to composition-writing, had worked up to his third year, shirking every exercise assigned to him. At last, after repeated censures, the alternative had to be met of performance or dismissal. He told his class-officer that, painful as it was, the latter must be his fate, for to write a composition was to him an utter impossibility. He was told to go out on a walk for a half hour; to note prominent objects and occurrences along his way; and then to go to his room and put down on paper a narrative of what he had noticed in just the order he had observed them, and just as they had impressed him. He complied. He brought the written narrative to his instructor. It was an acceptable performance of the task assigned. The fatal charm was now broken. To write a composition was to narrate—to communicate one's own thoughts to another. He became conscious of an object—a rational aim in writing. He soon rose to be one of the best writers in his class; and his name now ranks among the highest in American literature.

To narrate is one of the several processes determined by one of the several objects for which we speak or write—for which we con-

struct discourse. But it is only one of these processes. Description is another as widely different from Narration as Reduction of Fractions is from Involution. To confound the methods in these two processes would be as fatal as it would be to confound the methods in the two arithmetical processes just instanced. There are other processes still, which are now enumerated and explained with exactest logical accuracy and completeness. There is no lack of means, therefore, within the reach of the faithful teacher of composition for conducting his pupil along the straightest course of methodical training from one process to another, and prescribing to him appropriate and copious exercises on each. There is no art, perhaps, which admits to a higher degree than this very art of composing—than the art of discourse, of an exact scientific, progressive method of training. And as thus taught, composing ceases to be repulsive. It becomes positively interesting and inviting to every generous mind.

As in the first stage, the proper grammatical stage, we found the two elements—the form of the thought and the form of the word,—and as we began with the thought as the organic element, and then sought the appropriate verbal expression, so in the second stage—the rhetorical stage—we must begin with the thought as now determined and shaped by the particular object in writing. That is to be analyzed into its general forms so as to guide to the several processes which respect the management of the thought. After these several processes are mastered in sufficient practice on each successively, should come the proper study of the verbal expression—of style with suitable exercises in its several departments separately and successively.

In the way thus generally pointed, the acquisition of skill in speaking and writing becomes a clearly practicable, almost certain result, as it is seen to be by a rational procedure throughout, each successive step being simple and practicable, and each leading steadily to the proposed object—a ready command of thought and of correct expression for rational discourse.

VI.—STATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

AT LANCASTER, MASS.

THE success of the Farm School for boys, on Thompson's Island, in Boston Harbor, suggested to Hon. Theodore Lyman the noble donation to the State which resulted in the establishment of the Reform School for boys at Westborough.

Why should not equal provision be made for the neglected and vicious girls of the State, who were in even greater peril, and whose ruin would entail more serious consequences upon the community? was the question naturally suggested and persistently asked by benevolent men and women, until it was appropriately answered in the establishment of the *State Industrial School for girls*, at Lancaster, Mass.

As early as the Legislature of 1849, petitions, numerously signed, were forwarded to the "General Court," for the establishment of a "State Reform School for Girls." In 1850, commissioners were appointed to consider the subject and to report. A favorable report was made and referred to the succeeding Legislature, and was again, after discussion, referred in 1853. In the succeeding year, Governor Washburn commended the subject very warmly in his message to the consideration of the Legislature. A resolution was passed appropriating twenty thousand dollars for this purpose, providing the same amount should be raised, within six months, by private donations. Commissioners were also ordered, to be appointed by the Governor, to select a site, to prepare plans, and to propose the appropriate legislation for the establishment of such an institution.

The money was raised, and Messrs. John H. Wilkins, Henry B. Rogers, and Francis B. Fay, were appointed as commissioners to carry out the spirit of the resolves.

The site selected was an old brick mansion, in the ancient town of Lancaster, situated upon a fine, high lawn, embowered in elms, and surrounded by a farm of one hundred acres, (since increased to one hundred and forty,) sloping downward to a branch of the Nashua river. The lawn was increased in size and made symmetrical by the

generous gift from the town of the old common, or training field, that laid unimproved in front of the estate.

The large, square "Stillwell Mansion," by the outlay of a few thousand dollars was made to answer, quite conveniently, for one of the family houses. From the adjoining mountain, water was brought down in pipes, in sufficient quantity, and of an adequate "head" to meet all the wants of the institution, and to be distributed in every portion of it.

The site was every thing that could be desired, and was secured at a comparatively small price. To the indefatigable labors of Col. Fay, who deserves, for many reasons, the title of "father" to the institution, the State owes the admirable location of the school, and the marked economy attending its establishment.

After a careful examination of the plans of the more prominent European and American institutions, for the reformation of juvenile offenders, and calling to their aid the practical thinkers and writers upon this delicate question, the commissioners reported to the Legislature a system of organization and discipline, called, to distinguish it, the "family plan," following quite closely the arrangement of the institution for boys, at Mettray, in France, which was at that time attracting more attention among the friends of reform, than any other in Europe or America. Heretofore every public institution of the kind in this country had been upon the "congregate plan," constructed very similarly to penitentiaries, but made more comfortable, and wearing no penal aspect in their discipline. Greater indulgence, than is permitted in a penitentiary, was allowed in passing in and out of the limits of the reformatory, on the part of the children, and the officers were expected to hold a parental relation to the inmates, but still these institutions were included within walls, and the dormitories were closed by locks and bolts.

But the commissioners proposed that, at Lancaster, separate buildings should be constructed capable of accommodating thirty girls in each. That each house should be a separate family, under its appropriate matron, assistant matron, (who should also be the school teacher,) and housekeeper. All the work and study of the family, it was arranged, should go on under its own roof. No walls enclosed the village of homes that it was proposed to erect, and no fastenings defended the windows of the sleeping rooms from offering their facilities for the escape of the inmates. It is an interesting fact only two girls have succeeded in escaping from the school since its establishment, and these during the first six months of its history.

In each house it was proposed to distribute a portion of the older and of the younger girls—thus keeping up the idea of a family and securing the easier performance of the housework. The older girls were to have separate rooms, while the younger slept with a monitor in an open dormitory.

The work proposed for the girls was housework, the making of their own garments, knitting, and such plain trades as skirt making and straw braiding. From these sources, in the experiment of ten years, the time of the children has been fully occupied, when not engaged in school or in their necessary recreations.

The only change in the manner of committing subjects to the school from that pursued at Westborough, was the particularly happy arrangement to avoid the disgrace and taint of the court room, by appointing special commissioners to hear the complaints against the children, and constituting judges of probate, *ex officio*, commissioners for this purpose. By this means, also, the institution, it was thought, through the more careful supervision of special officers, would be saved from being overrun by a class of hardened and hopeless criminals, or by diseased and idiotic children.

Girls were permitted to be sent between the ages of seven and sixteen, and were, at first, committed until eighteen years of age. Since its organization, the trustees have received power from the Legislature to retain the custody of their subjects until they are twenty-one. As in other institutions, the trustees were empowered to indenture the girls, after having bestowed upon them sufficient training in the schools, to good families in the State or beyond its borders.

The report of the commissioners was accepted, and immediate steps were taken to provide buildings for the reception of inmates. The name by which the institution was known, in order to defend the girls committed to it, as far as possible, from any disgrace arising from their connection with it, was changed from "Reform School" to "Industrial School."

The institution was publicly dedicated, and the first house opened, Aug. 27th, 1856, and was, in a few months, filled with inmates of various ages, and, a large proportion of them, of American parentage. This somewhat remarkable fact, although the proportion has sometimes varied, has continued to characterize the subjects of the school until the present time.

The new houses were constructed of brick, two stories in height, very neatly and conveniently finished, at an expense of about twelve

thousand dollars each. By April, 1857, the third house had been opened, and, in January, 1860, the fourth.

In 1861, the fifth, and last house, a wooden dwelling-house fitted up for the purpose, was provided to meet the constantly increasing demand for accommodations. From the opening, the capacity of the school has always been fully taxed, and there has been scarcely a month when the rooms have not been uncomfortably crowded, and applications from Commissioners declined.

A convenient house, already on the grounds, formed a pleasant residence for the Superintendent, and another for the farmer. A neat, white, village church, standing unoccupied, was removed at small expense, and placed upon the lawn; and thus, five homes capable of receiving one hundred and fifty inmates, two family residences, and a pleasant chapel, were secured at an expense of but little over (\$60,000) sixty thousand dollars.

For the first six years the institution was under the care of Rev. Bradford K. Peirce, now Chaplain of the New York House of Refuge. Since his resignation, the present excellent incumbent, Rev. Marcus Ames, has conducted its affairs with great prudence and most encouraging success. The Superintendent unites in himself, the legitimate duties of his office, and the delicate and responsible labors of the Chaplain.

On last October, when the latest report was made, there had been received into the school 464 inmates; there were present at that time, in the different homes, 132 inmates, and 234 had been returned to friends, or completed the term of their indentures. The remainder had been removed to hospitals, or alms-houses, or discharged as unsuitable.

Without doubt, a large proportion of these girls are now living honest and pure lives. Some of them are filling quite conspicuous positions, as teachers or matrons in similar schools, who seemed, at the time they were sent to the institution, predestined to a life of sin and sorrow. Many have not fulfilled the expectations excited in their behalf, and are now wandering amid the retributions of the life of a transgressor.

The close and beautiful relation existing between three Christian women and thirty young girls, sitting at the same table, and forming one circle in family prayer, and in all domestic and social duties and enjoyments, must have, as the experiment has proved, a powerful and redeeming influence. It is possible that the Industrial Home may have been so pleasant and so light in its exactions upon the

girl, that sometimes, she has turned away dissatisfied from a somewhat rough and exacting country home; or an ambition has been aroused for other employment than house-work, and, in the failure to gratify this newly awakened taste, the temptation to turn aside to the paths of sin may have been awakened afresh. It may also have happened, that the difficulties attending the indenturing of the girls have induced the retaining of children too long in the school. All institution life is unnatural, and no child should be retained in any one, however improving, longer than is indispensable to prepare the child for the natural home in a family, where it must, certainly, ultimately live. We should never weary of the experiment of placing the child in a home. If it fails in one, it may find a congenial atmosphere in another.

All these tendencies and open problems are constantly in the thoughts and discussions of the cultivated and benevolent gentlemen that watch over the interests of this favorite institution, and the highest success that human wisdom can secure for it will be their earnest and constant endeavor to attain.

To the writer, it would seem an improvement to this admirable system, to have one larger building, where all the inmates should be at first received, and afterwards be detailed to the various homes. This building might admit of some restraint, as all attempts to escape are in the first weeks of a child's connection with the institution. In this building might also be the rooms of the Superintendent's family, and the public offices. Here also accommodation could be provided for girls returned from their places, or sent back by the Commissioners after their discharge. Such girls often exercise an unhappy influence over one of the families, by the stubborn tempers or vicious habits which they usually bring back with them.

It would be better, the writer thinks, not to have separate schools in each family, but to have one school house, and all the children attend there, as they meet in Chapel. This would admit of better classification and instruction, and break up, in a measure, the somewhat monastic character of the institution life.

But, take it all together, there probably is not a public institution of reform in the world, better subserving the great purpose for which it was established, or bringing more honor or satisfaction to the State which has given it birth, than the State Industrial School at Lancaster.

B. K. PEIRCE.

VII. JOHN COLET, AND ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, LONDON.

JOHN COLET, D. D., Dean of the Cathedral Church of St. Paul's, London, who, as founder of St. Paul's School in 1509-10 and the regulator of its original course of study, exerted a controlling influence on the curriculum and methods of secondary instruction in England, was born in London in 1466--the son of a wealthy silk merchant, Sir Thomas Colet, who was mayor of the city in the years 1486 and 1495. Having improved diligently the best opportunities of education which St. Anthony's School in Threadneedle Street, London, and St. Mary Magdalene College, at Oxford, afforded, he resorted to the Continent, residing four years abroad, and pursuing his studies and holding intercourse with famous teachers and scholars, in France and Italy, as Gaguinus, Deloigne, Budæus, Demetrius, Politianus, Hermolaus Barbarus, and Sabinus, and his own countrymen, Grocyne, Latymer, Linacer, and Lilly. His knowledge of Cicero and the best Latin authors, of logic and mathematics, and the Fathers of the Church, was profound, but of Greek literature, was quite limited. But in this last particular he shared the imperfections of that period, especially in England. Dr. Knight in his *Life of Dean Colet*, from which this memoir is compiled, observes:—

Such was the infelicity of those times, that the Greek tongue was not taught in any of our grammar schools, nor was there thought to be any great need of it in the two universities by the generality of scholars. It is worth notice, that Standish, who was a bitter enemy to Erasmus, in his declamation against him, styles him *Græculus iste*, which was for a long time after the phrase for an heretic, or one falling under the suspicion of heretical pravity. And for this very reason, those very few that understood Greek were afraid to teach it, lest they should be thought to propagate heresy.

But Dr. John Fisher, reputed the best preacher and the deepest divine in those times, head of Queen's College in Cambridge, chancellor of that university, chaplain at court, and afterwards Bishop of Rochester, was of another mind, and very sensible of this imperfection, which made him desirous to learn Greek in his declining years; and for that purpose he wrote to Erasmus, to persuade William Latymer, an Englishman, (who from his travels had brought home that language in perfection,) to be his instructor in it. Erasmus accordingly wrote to Latymer, and importuned him to it. But he declined the undertaking to teach the bishop at those years, alleging the long time it would require to make any proficiency in that tongue, from the examples of the greatest masters of it then in England, Grocin, Linacer, Tonsal, Pace, and Moore; and to excuse him-

self, advised that the bishop should send for a master out of Italy. And as there is no doubt but the consciousness of want of Greek in Colet incited him not only to attain to some competent knowledge of it himself, but also to lay the foundation of his school for the better accommodation of others, and to provide a master the best accomplished in that language, and so in effect to be the founder of the first Greek school in England, so not unlike to Dean Colet was Bishop Fisher in this point. For his want of Greek made him the greater patron and promoter of it in Cambridge, and his being chancellor of the university made it more eminent than Oxford in this respect; knowing therefore the abilities of Erasmus this way, he invited him thither, and supported him in professing that language, which he himself (at last) had made himself master of. And it would bear a general observation, that the worthy founders of colleges and schools have not been always the greatest clerks, though for the most part the wisest and best of men; there was sense and truth in that prelate, William Wickham, Bishop of Winchester, founder of the college there, and New College in Oxford, who, when accused of being no scholar, said, *he could make scholars, and that was greater.*

As for Oxford, its own history and antiquities sufficiently confess, that nothing was known there but Latin, and that in the most depraved style of the schoolmen. Cornelius Vitellius, an Italian, was the first who taught Greek in that university, and from him the famous Grocyné learned the first elements thereof.

In Cambridge, Erasmus was the first who taught the Greek grammar. And so very low was the state of learning in that university, "that (as he tells a friend) about the year 1485, the beginning of Henry the VIIth's reign, there was nothing taught in that public seminary besides Alexander's '*Parva Logica*,' (as they called them,) the old axioms of Aristotle, and the questions of John Scotus, till in process of time good letters were brought in, and some knowledge of the mathematics; as also Aristotle in a new dress, and some skill in the Greek tongue, and, by degrees, a multitude of authors, whose names before had not been heard of."

It is certain that even Erasmus himself did little understand Greek, when he came first into England, in 1497, (13 Henry VII.,) and that our countryman Linacer taught it him, being just returned from Italy with great skill in that language, which Linacer and William Grocyné were the two only tutors that were able to teach it. His first essay was in translating three declamations of Libanius from Greek into Latin in 1503.

The future Dean of St. Paul returned from his continental travels and studies with all the spirit and accomplishments which fitted him for public and court life, and with natural tastes for mere sensual enjoyment which his inherited wealth was calculated to foster, but breaking away from the seductions of both, he consecrated himself to temperance in all things, and to a career of pious, literary, and self-denying usefulness. He was made priest in 1497, and having already received several preferments in the Church, the enjoyment of which did not require residence as was the custom of that period, he retired to Oxford for the larger portion of each year until 1505, when he was made Dean of St. Paul.

While residing at Oxford, he was engaged in public instruction, by reading lectures on the Epistles of St. Paul without any remuneration, and which were much frequented not only by students, but by the most eminent professors and dignitaries of the Church. He here (1498) became personally acquainted with Erasmus, whose letters throw so much light not only on the life and character of his

correspondents, but on the state of education and literary society at that period in England, that we shall introduce extracts from Dr. Knight's account of their intimacy.

Erasmus had lived at Paris, and there had been tutor to several of our young nobility and gentry, particularly to the Honorable Thomas Grey, of the Dorset family, and the Lord Montjoy, by whose means probably he was induced to see England the first time; who, while he was thinking of a journey to Rome, stepped over from Calais to Dover, about the latter end of the year 1497, but seems to have made little or no stay in London, hastening down to Oxford, as the better mart of learning, being thither recommended by the prior and canons of St. Genovese at Paris, to Father Richard Charnock, prior of the regulars of the order of St. Austin, in the college of St. Mary the Virgin, where he was received, and accommodated with diet and lodging, in the most courteous and hospitable manner. Father Charnock, after a short trial of the parts and good qualities of his new guest, gave a character of him to Master Colet, that he was, in his opinion, a very excellent person, and of singular worth and goodness; which did so please him, (having also before heard of his fame abroad,) that he had not the patience to wait for an opportunity of seeing this learned stranger, but would make his first address with his pen, and wrote immediately to him from his own chamber an elegant and agreeable epistle, in such a turn of obliging thoughts and words, as showed the writer to be a scholar, a traveler, and a gentleman. He tells him that his friend Brome had heartily recommended him by letter, but that he stood before highly commended to him, as well by the fame of his reputation abroad, as by the testimony of his writings; that while he was at Paris, he well remembers the name of Erasmus was in the mouths of the learned, and that he had there particularly read over an epistle of his to Gaguinus, wherein he had celebrated his industry and skill in drawing up the history of France, which seemed to him to be the specimen of a perfect writer, both for learning and a knowledge of the world. But still the best recommendation of him was, that the venerable prior, with whom he now sojourned, had yesterday told him, that his new guest, in his opinion, was a very excellent person, and endowed with singular virtues.

To this letter Erasmus immediately returned a very apposite answer, that could he find any thing commendable in himself, he should be proud of being commended by such a worthy person, to whose judgment he allowed so great a weight, that his silent esteem alone had been preferable to all the applauses of a theatre at Rome. But, however, the commendations given him by such a person were so far from exalting him in his own conceit, that he was rather mortified by them, for they only put him in mind what he ought to be. That for his part, he best knew his own failings, and therefore would presume to give a character of himself.

You have in me a man of little or no fortune, a stranger to ambition, a mighty well-wisher to love and friendship, a sort of novice in learning, but yet a great admirer thereof. One who has a profound veneration for any excellence in others, as conscious of the want of it in himself; who can easily yield to any one in learning, to none in integrity; a man sincere, open, free, a hater of falsehood and dissimulation, of a mind lowly and upright, from whom nothing is to be expected besides an honest heart. If, my dear Colet, you can love such a man, and think him worthy of your friendship, you may account me your own as effectually as any thing you can call your own. Your country of England

is most pleasant to me upon many accounts, but especially on this—that it abounds with those blessings, without which nothing would relish with me, men of admirable learning, among whom no mortal will grudge that I reckon you the chief.

These two friends being now happy in each other's acquaintance, were not wanting to improve it to the mutual benefit of one another, particularly at a public dinner in the university, after a Latin sermon, where the table-talk was scholastic and theological, Master Colet sitting as moderator. Among other discourse Colet said, "that Cain's greatest offense, and the most odious in God's sight, was his distrusting the bounty of our great Creator, and placing too much confidence in his own art and industry, and so tilling the ground, while his brother Abel, content with the natural productions of the earth, was only feeding sheep." Upon this argument the whole company engaged, the divine arguing by strict syllogisms, while Erasmus opposed in a more loose and rhetorical manner, "but in truth," saith Erasmus, "this one divine (Master Colet) was more than a match for us all. He seemed to be filled with a divine spirit, and to be somewhat above a man; he spoke not only with his voice, but with his eyes, his countenance, and his whole demeanor." When the disputation grew too long, and was too grave and severe for such a cheerful entertainment, Erasmus broke it off, by telling an old story of Cain, from a pretended ancient author, though purely of his own invention upon the spot, and so they parted friends. Erasmus, the same year, gives this account of the result of that meeting, to one who was invited to it, Johannes Sixtinus, a learned Phrygian, who then studied in the university of Oxford, and was afterwards incorporated Doctor of Laws, in the year 1510.

Mr. Colet, as he was ambitious of contracting acquaintance with any person of note or virtue or learning, so he obliged Erasmus in bringing him to the acquaintance of his fellow-citizen, Mr. More, (afterwards Sir Thomas,) of whom he was used to say, that he was the only wit in the island. And as to Mr. More's opinion of Colet, it was so great and lasting, that after he was preferred to the deanery of St. Paul's and himself at Lincoln's Inn, he constantly attended on his excellent lectures.

Erasmus (who made up one of the happy triumvirate) was so well pleased with the air and conversation of Oxford, that like many other students, he staid till he had spent all his money, and was indebted for his commons. Upon this exigence, he writ to the Lord Mountjoy, to send him that little money he had in his hands, that he might be just to Father Charnock, who had treated him with all possible civility and bounty.

In this letter, dated from Oxford in 1498, he remembers the humanity of Colet, as well as of the Prior Charnock, and says, that nothing can be more sweet, lovely, and charming, than the temper and conversation of these two men; he could live even in Scythia, or any the remotest part of the world, with two such agreeable friends and companions. Towards the end of the same year, Erasmus, extremely well pleased with his enjoyments at Oxford, being supplied with money, returned to London, to wait upon his pupil, the Lord Mountjoy, and to gain and cultivate a better acquaintance with the men of studies and travels, who at that season of the year resorted to the court and city.

While Erasmus made some stay at Oxford, (in 1498,) the occasions of Master Colet called him to some other part of England, but whatever was the distance,

those two friends kept a constant correspondence. In one of his letters Master Colet had kindly reproved Erasmus for some fault and omission in him, which though not mentioned by Erasmus, yet we find how well it worked with him, and that he thought these kind monitions were rather an establishment than a breach of friendship, and without which plain dealing it was impossible it should subsist long. Then he freely expressed his great dislike of that new theology, which was unhappily brought into the church by the modern schoolmen, and was in effect nothing but the art of trifling and wrangling, telling him that he had set himself against those scholastical divines, and would, if possible, restore the theological studies that were founded upon the Scriptures and the primitive fathers. That it was upon this view he had publicly in Oxford expounded the Epistles of St. Paul, and should be glad of a partner in that labor of searching the Scriptures. And he earnestly pressed Erasmus to join with him, and to undertake a like public exposition of some part of the Old Testament, (while he himself was employed in the New,) either a book of Moses, or the eloquent Isaiah, that he might so warm the minds and affections of the students in those cold winter months that were now coming on.

This excellent letter of Mr. Colet is lost, but the answer of Erasmus shows the contents of it. Wherein, among the excuses made for not complying with the advice of it, the best excuse of Erasmus was, that he must soon return to Paris. In the meantime, while he was detained in England, partly by the winter season, and partly by an embargo laid on shipping, upon the flight of a certain commander, [i. e., an escape out of the Tower, made by the pretender, Perkin Warbeck,] he had retired for a few months to that famous university, to converse with scholars and divines, rather than with courtiers. He would have Colet go on with his laudable endeavors of reforming the studies of divinity, and says:—"As soon as I am conscious to myself of strength and ability sufficient, I will readily come in to your assistance, and be diligent at least, if not useful, in that excellent work. In the meantime, nothing can be a greater pleasure, than either in discourse, or by letter, to inquire into the sense and right meaning of the Holy Scriptures. Farewell, my Colet. The most courteous prelate, [all heads of religious houses were so called,] Richard Charnock, my host, and our common friend, bids me give you his wishes of health and happiness. Oxford—from the convent of canons of the order of St. Augustine, commonly called St. Mary's."

In this epistolary intercourse, Colet and Erasmus, like true Christians and divines, consulted and instructed one another. And their conversation, while together in England, was to promote their mutual studies and endeavors for the public good, which they continued to do many years after this, for when Erasmus was here preparing his immortal work, the New Testament in its original, and a new Latin version, he was very much assisted by Dr. Colet, who lent him two very authentic Latin copies, of great antiquity.

While at Cambridge, Erasmus writes to his friend Colet, that he was forced to fight for him with the Thomists and Scotists of that place, being the more angry with those fellows, for hindering the progress of learning, especially of the Greek language, at that time making its way into the world, which they were so mad at, that they could not forbear flying out against it even in their pulpits, and endeavored to run it down, under the notion of heresy, as hath been before hinted.

Though the knowledge of the Greek tongue was at this time very low, yet there was a comment on Aristotle ventured upon for the sake of the schoolmen, wherein, (as ill-luck would have it,) by the mistake (or rather ignorance) of the commentator, instead of *ψυχὴ ἰερὴ ἀύλος*, *anima est immaterialis*, was read *ψυχὴ ἰερὴ αἰλός*, and so it was rendered *anima est tibia*, instead of *immaterialis*. This put the good man's brains, while reading upon that author, on the tenters to clear his text; but at last he thought he had done notably, when he brought no less than fifteen reasons (such as they were) to prove that odd assertion, that the soul was a pipe, which Aristotle never so much as dreamt of.

This was the case with all of them, as to their ignorance in the Greek tongue. But yet they hugged themselves under this venerable mantle, and proclaimed every one an heretic, who understood that tongue, especially if he made use of his skill in translating or criticising upon the New Testament. And this aversion to good literature remained all the reign of Henry VII. and the beginning of Henry VIII. About which time, even at Oxford, a preacher declaimed openly at St. Mary's against the pernicious innovation of the Greek tongue, and raised such a ferment about it among the students, that the king, then at Woodstock, (having had the matter rightly stated to him by Mr. Thomas More and Richard Pace,) sent his royal letters to the university, to allow and commend that study among the young men.

It was not long after this, that a divine, preaching at court, presumed to rail plentifully at Greek learning, and new interpretations of the Scripture. Dr. Pace cast his eyes upon the king, to observe how his majesty was affected with such stuff. The king smiled upon Pace by way of contempt of the preacher, and after sermon sent for him, and appointed a solemn disputation, wherein he himself would be present, to debate the matter between the preacher opposing, and Mr. Thomas More defending the use of the Greek tongue. When the time came, Mr. More began an eloquent apology in favor of that ancient language. The divine, instead of answering to the purpose, fell down upon his knees, and only begged pardon for giving any offense in the pulpit. And excusing himself, that what he did, was by the impulse of the Spirit; "not the spirit of Christ," says the king, "but the spirit of infatuation." His majesty then asked him, whether he had read any thing of Erasmus? He said "No." "Why then," says the king, "you are a very foolish fellow, to censure what you never read." "I have read," says he, "something they call *Moirá*." "Yes," says Pace, "may it please your highness, such a subject is fit for such a reader." At last the preacher, to bring himself the better off, declared, that he was now better reconciled to the Greek tongue, because it was derived from the Hebrew. The king, amazed at the ignorance of the man, dismissed him, with a charge that he should never again preach at court.

In 1501 Mr. Colet was permitted "to proceed in divinity to the reading of the Sentences;" in 1502 he became Prebendary of Durnesford; in 1504 he commenced Doctor of Divinity, and in 1505 he was advanced to the deanery of St. Paul's, which was hailed with great satisfaction by his friends at home and abroad. Here he at once entered on a course of labors which restored the decayed discipline of his cathedral church, and brought in a new practice of preaching himself upon Sundays, and all solemn festivals. He

had always a full auditory, and amongst others, the chief magistrate of the city. He instituted a course of divinity lectures, in which he secured the assistance of William Grocyne, (the Greek scholar,) John Major, (a learned Scot,) John Sowle, (a Carmelite,) and even the learned Erasmus.

Of Dean Colet's way of living in London we have a faithful picture in a letter of Erasmus to one of his continental friends.

There is at London, Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's—a man who has happily conjoined the deepest learning with the greatest piety, and therefore is of the highest esteem and authority among all sorts of people. * * The Dean's table, which, under the name of hospitality, had before served too much to pomp and luxury, he contracted to a more frugal and temperate way of entertaining. And it having been his custom, for many years, to eat but one meal, that of dinner, he had always the evening to himself. When he dined privately with his own family, he had always some strangers for his guests, but the fewer, because his provision was frugal, which yet was neat and genteel. The sittings were short, and the discourses such as pleased only the learned and the good. As soon as grace, before meat, was said, some boy, with a good voice, read distinctly a chapter out of one of St. Paul's Epistles, or out of the Proverbs of Solomon. When he had done reading, the Dean would pitch upon some particular part of it, and thence frame a subject-matter of discourse, asking either the learned, or such as were otherwise of good understanding, what was the meaning of this or that expression, and he would so adapt and temper his discourse, that though it was grave and serious, yet it never tired, or gave any distaste. Again, toward the end of dinner, when the company was rather satisfied than satiated, he would throw in another subject of discourse, and thus he dismissed his guests with a double repast, refreshed in their minds as well as bodies, so that they always went away better than they came, and were not oppressed with what they had eat and drunk. He was mightily delighted with the conversation of his friends, which he would sometimes protract till very late in the evening, but all his discourse was either of learning or religion. If he could not get an agreeable companion, (for it was not every body he did like,) one of his servants read some part of the Holy Scriptures to him. In his journeys he would sometimes make me his companion, and he was as easy and pleasant as any man living, yet he always carried a book with him, and all his discourse was seasoned with religion. He was so impatient of whatsoever was foul and sordid, that he could not bear with any indecent or improper way of speaking. He loved to be neat and clean in his goods, furniture, entertainment, apparel, and books, and whatever belonged to him, and yet he despised all state and magnificence. His habit was only black, though it was then common for the higher clergy to be clad in purple. His upper garment was always of woollen cloth, and plain, which, if the weather was cold and required it, he lined with fur. Whatever came in by his ecclesiastical preferments, he delivered to his steward, to be laid out on family occasions or hospitality, and all that arose from his own proper estate (which was very large) he gave away for pious and charitable uses.

The Dean's labors in fulfilling all the duties of his position, in

discharging faithfully all charitable bequests to the cathedral, and enforcing discipline and regulations on the clergy, as well as in his pulpit discourses, made some private enemies among the dignitaries, and exposed him to the imputation of heresy. Of one of the most formidable of these attacks, Erasmus gives an account in a letter to one of his Paris correspondents.

The Dean had never stood right with the bishop, who was a very rigid Scotist, and the more jealous of the Dean, because his lectures and sermons were chiefly employed in opening the sense of the Scriptures, which being in the new way of learning, was called *heresy*. And in truth, at that time, any divine that had more learning or piety than the grosser part of his order, or did touch or talk of any thing out of the common road of the Church of Rome, was counted a perverse heretic, or at least suspected of the crime of heretical pravity. The bishop, upon this score, accuses the Dean to the archbishop as a dangerous man, and calling in the assistance of two other bishops of equal bigotry and no less virulency, he began to create him a great deal of trouble and vexation, using no other weapon but that of the charge of *heresy*, which was then reckoned the most fatal engine for the destruction of their enemies. So the bishop drew up certain articles against the Dean. One was, that the said Dr. Colet had taught that images were not to be worshiped. A second was, that he had preached against the temporal possessions of the bishops, by denying that the repeated exhortation of Christ to Peter, *to feed his sheep*, could be at all meant of hospitality, or the worldly ways of entertainment, because the apostles were then poor, and unable to give any such reception. A third was, that he had preached against some men's reading their sermons in a cold, unaffected manner, whereby he must needs mean to reflect upon the bishop himself, who, by reason of his old age, had taken up that idler way of preaching. But Archbishop Warham, who knew the integrity and worth of Dr. Colet, undertook to defend the innocent party, and from a judge became his advocate and patron, and dismissed him without giving him the trouble of putting in any formal answer. And yet the old bishop did not cool in his spirit of persecution, but in effect appealed from the archbishop to the king, by endeavoring, all that was possible, to incense his highness and the whole court against him.

As it was, he was for a time under censure, and was obliged to suspend his labors in the pulpit.

Bishop Latimer, who was at that time a young student at Cambridge, remembered the noise that the prosecution of Dean Colet for heresy then made, and says expressly, that he "was not only in trouble, but should have been burnt, if God had not turned the king's heart to the contrary."

The Dean was charitable to those who differed from him in opinion, if they were honest and industrious in their lives, and he had frequent occasion to interpose his influence both with magistrates and the king in behalf of individuals of a class known as Lollards, who resided in the neighborhood of the cathedral. His own troubles and persecutions only made him more devout and charitable, weaning him from the world, and bringing him in mind and soul

much nearer to heaven. In this frame of mind, he conceived the project of consecrating his worldly goods to some perpetual benefaction, which was consummated by the founding of St. Paul's School in London in 1508-10, some ten years before his death, which occurred in 1519. Of this enterprise his biographer, Dr. Knight, gives a particular account, which we shall transfer to our pages as the best memorial of his services to good learning, and the evidence of the teaching of his day.

Of the excellencies of Dean's Colet's life and character, Erasmus has left numerous mention in letters written from Louvain on receiving tidings of his death.

To Mr. Dancaster he writes:—"How deplorable is your case and mine, who have lost such a teacher, such a patron, such a friend! It is said to a proverb, that *the loss of money is bewailed with the truest sorrow*, but I am sure this is a loss of more inestimable treasure, and ought to be infinitely more lamented. But alas! what signify all our sighs and tears? He can not be recalled to us, but we shall soon follow him. We should rather, in the meantime, congratulate our late friend, that he is now in better company; he securely enjoys his Saviour Christ, whom he always had in his lips and at his heart."

To Bishop Fisher:—"I write now in tears for the decease of Dr. Colet—a loss and affliction to me greater than I have suffered these thirty years. I know his state is happy; he is now delivered from a troublesome and wicked world, and enjoys the presence of his Redeemer Jesus, whom he loved so affectionately in his life; but in the name of the world, I can not but deplore the loss of such an admirable example of Christian piety, such an excellent preacher of the gospel of Christ, and even in my own name, I must bewail the loss of a constant friend and incomparable patron. All that I can do is, to pay my just duty to his name and memory, and not to suffer them to die, if any thing I write can live to posterity."

And tenderly and faithfully did he perform this duty in his epistle addressed to Justus Jonas, Rector of the University of Erfurt, in which he has embalmed for posterity the principal incidents and characteristic features of the life and character of his two friends, John Colet and John Vitrier.

Truly, my dear friend, though I have conversed with very many whose integrity and goodness I have heartily approved, yet hitherto I never saw the man in whose morals I did not discover somewhat of the Christian simplicity and purity to be wanting when compared with these two excellent persons whom I am now going to describe. I became acquainted with one of them at St. Omer, when the plague (so far happy to me) drove me from Paris to that town, and with the other in England, when I was first drawn thither out of love and respect to my young pupil, the Lord Mountjoy. You will reckon it your advantage, I know, if, instead of one, I give you two. The first, namely John Vitrier, was a monk of the order of St. Francis. He fell into that way of life while very young, and was in no other respect behind Dr. Colet, save only

that, being a slave to his order, he had not the opportunity of doing so much good.

He concludes his letter thus:—"I have here given you two of the truest and sincerest Christians that I believe any one age ever produced—not in a perfect print, but in a sort of rough draught, as far as the narrow compass of an epistle would allow. It will be your part to pick out of both what you think will conduce most to Christian piety. If you ask to which of the two I would give the preference—I think them of equal goodness, though of different condition of life. And as it was a greatness of soul in Colet, with that plentiful fortune, not to follow where nature but where his Saviour called him, so truly it was a singular excellence in Vitrier, that he could show so much of a pure, evangelical spirit in such a wrong turn of religious life, and be, as it were, a fish in the fens without any thing of the muddy taste. After all, there were some things in Colet that savored a little of human infirmity, but I never saw any thing in Vitrier that betrayed the least tincture of flesh and blood."

VIII. ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL.*

THE state of schools in London before Dean Colet's foundation was to this effect: the chancellor of Paul's (as in all the ancient cathedral churches) was master of the schools, (*magister scholarum*,) having the direction and government of literature, not only within the church but within the whole city; so that all the masters and teachers of grammar depended on him and were subject to him; particularly he was to find a fit master for the school of St Paul, and present him to the dean and chapter, and then to give him possession, and at his own cost and charges to repair the houses and buildings belonging to the school. This master of the grammar school was to be a sober, honest man, of good and laudable learning, who should instruct the boys, especially those belonging to the church, in grammar, and set them the example of a good life, and take great care not to deprave the minds of those little ones by any turpitude in word or deed, but with chaste language and conversation train them up in holiness and the fear of God, and be unto them, not only a master of grammar but also of virtue and religion. He was, to all intents, the true vice-chancellor of the church, and was sometime so called, and this was the original meaning of chancellors (and vice-chancellors) in the two universities or great schools of the kingdom. A grant of the office and dignity of chancellor of the church passed formerly by giving and granting the school of St. Paul, as in the time of Richard de Belmeis, Bishop of London, about 1123.

That Paul's School was very ancient appears by the charter of Richard, Bishop of London, in Henry I.'s time, who granted to one Hugh, the school-master thereof, and his successors, the habitation of Durandus, at the corner of the turret or bell-tower, and the custody of the library belonging to the church; after whom succeeded Henry, a canon of the same bishop; which Henry was so respected by Henry de Bloys, Bishop of Winchester, that he commanded none should teach school in London without his license, except the school-masters of St. Mary le Bow and St. Martin le Grand. All that presumed to open any school within the city, (except in those exempt places,) after a third admonition, were to be excommunicated.

Dean Colet being desirous his school should be independent upon this power, (which probably he observed had been somewhat abused,) was therefore, in respect to the memory of his father, who had gained a fair estate in the company of mercers, as well as for other reasons, willing to show his regard to them, by constituting them sole governors of his foundation; and he seems to have been instrumental in obtaining for them the right of nomination, or presentation, of a master to the hospital of St. Thomas of Acon, in the city of London, (now Mercers' Chapel,) granted to the said society by Richard, Bishop of London, in 1514.

At this time the common way for the nobility and gentry to educate their sons was, to send them into a religious convent, especially of the Dominicans,

* Abridged from Knight's "*Life of Dr. John Colet*."

Franciscans, or Augustine friars, where, as Erasmus says, "they had not above three months' time allowed them for learning grammar, and then immediately were posted away to sophistry, logic, suppositions, ampliations, restrictions, expositions, resolutions, and a thousand quibbles, and so on to the mysteries of divinity, but if they were brought to any classic author, Greek or Latin, they were blind, they were ignomant, they thought themselves in another world." Yet the age began now to be wiser, and to be well versed in grammar-learning was thought a matter of greater importance by all who were well-wishers to the restoration of learning. Particularly Bishop Waynflete, in founding his three schools, at Waynflete, Brackley, and within Magdalen College in Oxford, took care that in those different parts of the kingdom the seeds of Greek and human literature might be early sown, to yield a plentiful increase through the whole nation; and in his foundation of Magdalen College, as he provided sufficient salaries for a master and usher to teach boys the rudiments of that tongue, so for the scholars of his house that should grow up to greater maturity in age and learning, he settled a particular professor, to confirm and perfect them in that language.

Instruction in grammar was a main use and purpose of the ancient foundations. And even so late as the erecting and endowing of Jesus College in Cambridge it was, as for a master and six fellows, so for a certain number of scholars to be instructed in grammar.

It may show the great regard had about this time to these studies, that the university students took their degrees in rhetoric and grammar, the manner whereof Mr. Wood tells us, in his account of an eminent grammarian, Robert Whittington. "In the beginning of the year 1513, 5 Henry VIII., he supplicated the venerable congregation of regents, under the name and title of Robert Whytingdon, a secular chaplain, and a scholar of the art of rhetoric, that whereas he had spent fourteen years in the study of the said art, and twelve years in the informing of boys, it might be sufficient for him that he might be laureated. This supplication being granted, he was (after he had composed an hundred verses, which were stuck up in public places, especially on the door or doors of St. Mary's church,) very solemnly crowned, or his temples adorned with a wreath of laurel, that is, doctorated in the arts of grammar and rhetoric, 4 July the same year." And this may discover the error of some, who, not considering the crown of laurel as the ensign of a degree, have been apt to think that a poet laureat of old, as well as of late, had that title and a pension with it from the prince, when it came from the university in commencing the degree of doctor of grammar, as it came thus to Bernard Andreas, tutor of Prince Arthur, to John Skelton, tutor of Prince Henry, &c.

Polydore Vergil and Erasmus, both personally acquainted with the life and motives of Dean Colet, have described the establishment of St. Paul's School.

Polydore Vergil, in the twenty-sixth book of his History of England, speaking of the new foundations of colleges in Oxford and Cambridge, adds:—

It was the same spirit of virtue and glory that excited Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, to propagate in some like manner the knowledge of good letters. He being very eminent, as well for his greatness and firmness of mind, as for his goodness and integrity of life, was esteemed among his countrymen (the English) as if he had been a second St. Paul. For being from a child naturally devout and religious, as soon as he grew up, and was perfectly instructed in those arts and sciences which are called the studies of humanity, he applied himself with the utmost intention to divinity, and chose out St. Paul for his

great master and director, in whose writings he was so conversant, both at Oxford and Cambridge, and in Italy, that, becoming a sound divine, and a complete scholar, as soon as he returned from his travels, he began to read public lectures out of the Epistles of St. Paul, in his native city of London, and to preach often in the churches. And because his life was agreeable to his doctrine, people were much the more attentive and complying to him. For he was a man of exemplary temperance, and all other virtues. He eat but once a day. He was not ambitious of honor, nor covetous of worldly wealth; so far from pursuing after riches, that he rather avoided and fled from them, while they notwithstanding pursued and overtook him. It so happened, that of two and twenty children which Henry Colet, his father, (a citizen of great prudence and virtue,) had by Christian, his wife, (an excellent woman, of a good family,) this John was the only survivor, and his father's inheritance came to him. When he was in full possession of it, observing that many of his fellow-natives of that city did, by the mere strength of nature, grow up into considerable men, he concluded they would sooner do so, if they had the help and advantage of being trained up in good literature. And therefore he resolved to lend (at his own expense) that assistance to the children of that city; for which purpose he founded a magnificent school in the east part of St. Paul's churchyard, and appointed two masters, the principal being William Lily, the other John Ryghthuyse, who was to attend the lower boys—both men of learning, good manners, and the greatest diligence. Lily was a man (in the phrase of Horace) *of a pure and unspotted life*, who, after he had bestowed some years in Italy, for the attaining of perfect letters, i. e., the Greek and Latin tongues, upon his return was the first among the English that taught them in any public school. It was somewhat before this time, that Cornelius Vitellius, an Italian, born at Cornaro, a maritime town on the coast of Tuscany, a man of a noble family, and of all agreeable qualifications, taught both these kinds of literature at Oxford.

For those two masters Dean Colet made a suitable provision, by annual salaries, to support them, in teaching without fee or reward forever. And he made it an injunction, that in the room of the upper master, the second should succeed, without just impediment, by which means Ryghthuyse succeeded Lily, and after Ryghthuyse, Master Richard Jones, a very learned and modest man. But as by the benefit of this school the London youth have been very much polished and improved, so the whole kingdom has enjoyed the good effects of a daily progress of languages and school learning.

But the best account is given us by Erasmus, and it is very particular as followeth.

Upon the death of his father, when by right of inheritance he was possessed of a good sum of money, lest the keeping of it should corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new school in the churchyard of St. Paul's, dedicated to the child Jesus; a magnificent fabric; to which he added two dwelling-houses for the two several masters, and to them he allotted ample salaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys, free, and for the sake of charity. He divided the school into four apartments. The first, viz., the porch and entrance, is for catechumens, or the children to be instructed in the principles of religion, where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The second apartment is for the lower boys, to be taught by the second master or usher; the third for the upper forms, under the head-master, which two parts of the school are divided by a curtain, to be drawn at pleasure. Over the master's chair is an image of the child Jesus, of admirable work, in the gesture of teaching, whom all the boys, going and coming, salute with a short hymn; and there is a representation of God the Father, saying, *Hear ye him*, these words being written at my suggestion. The fourth or last apartment is a little chapel for divine service. The school has no corners or hiding places; nothing like a cell or closet. The boys have their distinct forms, or benches, one above another. Every form holds sixteen, and he that is head or captain of each form has a little kind of desk by way of pre-eminence. They are not to admit all boys of course, but to choose them in according to their parts and capacities. The wise and sagacious founder saw that the greatest hopes and happiness of the commonwealth were in the training up of children to good letters and true religion, for which noble purpose he laid out

an immense sum of money, and yet he would admit no one to bear a share in this expense. Some person having left a legacy of one hundred pounds sterling toward the fabric of the school, Dean Colet perceived a design in it, and, by leave of the bishop, got that money to be laid out upon the vestments of the church of St. Paul. After he had finished all, he left the perpetual care and oversight of the estate, and government of it, not to the clergy, not to the bishop, not to the chapter, nor to any great minister at court, but amongst the married laymen, to the company of mercers, men of probity and reputation. And when he was asked the reason of so committing this trust, he answered to this effect: That there was no absolute certainty in human affairs, but for his part he found less corruption in such a body of citizens than in any other order or degree of mankind.

Dean Colet, it is plain, had grammar-learning so much at heart, that in the year 1509, as he had been the pious founder of this school, so he was laboring himself to be the perpetual teacher and instructor of it; and therefore, after he had appointed Mr. William Lily to be the chief or high master, who answered Erasmus' character of a good scholar in all respects, he drew up some rudiments of grammar, with an abridgment of the principles of religion, and published them for the standing use and service of Paul's School, entitled "*Rudimenta Grammatices a Johanne Colet, Decano Ecclesie Sancti Pauli London, in Usum Scholæ ab ipso institutæ.*" Which little manual, called Paul's Accidence, the author, Dr. Colet, dedicated to the new master, Lilye, in a short, elegant Latin epistle, dated from his own house the first of August, 1510.

The most remarkable part of this introduction to grammar are the honest and admirable rules that the Dean prescribed for the admission and continuance of boys in his school, which rules and orders were to be read over to the parents, when they first brought their children, for their assent to them, as the express terms and conditions of expecting any benefit of education there.

— The mayster shall reherse these articles to them that offer their chyldren, on this wyse here followynge —

If youre chyldre can rede and wryte Latyn and Englyshe suffyciently, so that he be able to rede and wryte his own lessons, then he shal be admitted into the schole for a scholer.

If youre chyldre, after reasonable season proved, be founde here unapte and unable to lernynge, than ye warned thereof, shal take hym awaye, that he occupye not oure rowme in wayne.

If he be apt to lerne, ye shal be contente that he continue here tyl he have competent literature.

If he absente vi dayes, and in that mean season ye shew not cause reasonable, (reasonable cause is al only sekene,) than his rowme to be voyde, without he be admitted agayne, and pay iiiid.

Also after cause shewed, if he conteneue to absente tyl the weke of admysion in the next quarter, and then ye shewe not the contenance of his sekene, then his rowme to be voyde, and he none of the schole tyl he be admytted agayne, and paye iiiid. for wryting his name.

Also if he fall thryse into absence, he shal be admytted no more.

Your chyldre shal, on Chyldermas daye, wayte upon the boy byshop at Poules, and offer there.

Also ye shal fynde him waxe in winter.

Also ye shal fynde him convenyent boke to his lernynge.

If the offerer be content with these articles, than let his childe be admytted.

Then follow, in English, The Articles of the Faythe; the seven Sacraments; Charyte, the love of God, the love of thyn own self, the love of thy neighbour, penance, howsellinge in sekene, in deth, precepts of lyvinge: (in Latine,) Symbolum Apostolicum; Oratio Dominica; Salutatio Angelica; Oratiuncula ad puerum Jesum Scolæ Præsidem; Mi Domine, Jesu suavissime; qui puer adhuc, anno ætatis tuæ duodecimo, &c.

We give below Dean Colet's "*Institution of a Christian Man, for the Use of his School, prefixed to the Rudiments of the Latin Tongue.*"

The Artycles of Faythe.

I byleve in God the Father almyghty creatour of heven, and of erth, &c.
Then follow the the sacramentes.

Charyte. The Love of God.

In trewe byleve I shall fyrste love God the Father almyghty that made me, and our Lorde Jesu Chryste that redemed me, and the Holy Goost that alway inspireth me. This blessed holy Trinite I shall alway love and honour, and serve with all my herte, mynde, and strength, and fere God alonely, and put my trust in hym alonely.

The love of thyne owne selfe.

Seconde, I shall love my selfe to God warde, and shall abstayne fro all synne as moche as I may, specially from the synnes deedly.

I shall not be proude, nor envyous, nor wrothfull, I shall not be glotinous, nor lecherous, nor slouthfull, I shal not be covetous desiring superfluite of worldly thynges, and yvell company I shall eschewe, and .fye as moche as I may.

I shall gyve me to grace and virtue, and connyng in God. I shall pray often, specially on the holy dayes. I shall lyve alway temperatly, and sobre of my mouthe.

I shall fast the dayes commaunded in Christes Chyrche. I shall kepe my mynde fro yveil and foule thoughtes. I shall kepe my mouth from swearyng, lyenge, and foule spekyng.

I shall kepe my handes fro stelyng and pyking. Thynges taken away I shall restore agayne. Thynges founde I shall rendre agayne.

The love of thy neyghbour.

Thyrde, I shal love my neyghbour: that is every man to Godwarde, as my owne selfe. And shall helpe hym in all necessytes spyritually and bodyly, as I wolde be holpen my owne selfe; specially my father and my moder, that brought me into this worlde. The mayster that teacheth me I shall honour and obey.

My felowes that lerne with me I shall love.

Penance.

If I fall to synne I shall anone ryse agayne by penance and pure confession.

Houslyng.

As often as I shall receive my Lorde in sacrament, I shall with all study dispose me to pure clenynesse and devooyon.

In sycknesse.

Whan I shall dye, I shal call for the sacramentes and rightes of Chrystes chyrche by tymes, and be confessed, and receyve my Lorde and Redemer Jesu Chryst.

In dethe.

And in peryll of dethe I shal gladly call to be enea ea, and so armed in God I shal departe to hym in truste of his mercy, in our Lorde Chryst Jesu.

Hoc fac, et vives.

Preceptes of lyfynge.

Feare God.	Forgyve gladly.
Love God.	Chastyse thy body.
Desyre to be with hym.	Be sobre of thy mouth.
Serve hym dayly with some prayer.	Be sobre of meat and drinke.
Brydle the affectyons of thy mynde.	Be sobre in talkynge.
Subdue thy sensual appetytes.	Flye swearnynge.
Thrust downe pryde.	Flye foule language.
Refrayne thy wrathe.	Love clenlynesse and chastyte.
Beware of ryot.	Use honest company.
Dispende measurably.	Lose no tyme.
Flye dishonesty.	Stand in grace.
Be true in worde and dede.	Fallyng downe dispayre not.
Reverende thy elders.	Ever take a fresshe newe good purpose.
Obeie thy superiours.	Persever constantly.
Be felowe to thyne equales.	Use oft tymes confessions.
Be benygne and loving to thyne inferiours.	Washe cleane.
Love all men in God.	Sorowe for thy synnes.
Bylove and trust in Christ Jesu, worship hym, and hym serve and obey.	Aske often mercy.
Call often for grace of the Holy Goost.	Be no slogarde.
Love peace and equitye.	Awake quickly.
Thynke on deth.	Enryche the with vertue.
Drede the judgment of God.	Lerne dyligently.
Trust in Goddes mercy.	Teche that thou hast lerned lovingly.
Be alway well occupied.	By this way thou shalt come to grace and to glory. Amen.
Forget trespasses.	

Symbolum Apostolorum.

Credo in Deum Patrem, &c.

Oratio Dominica.

Pater noster, qui es in coelis, &c.

Oratiuncula ad puerum Jesum scholæ præsidem.

Mi Domine Jesu suavissime, qui puer adhuc anno ætatis tue duodecimo in Hierosolymitano templo inter doctores illos sic disputasti, ut stupefacti universi tuam superexcellentem sapientiam admirarentur: te quaeso, ut in hac tua schola, cui prees, et patrocinaris, eam quotidie discam, et literaturam, et sapientiam, qua possim in primis te, Jesu, qui es ipsa vera sapientia, cognoscere, deinde cognitum eundem te colere, et imitari, atque in hac brevi vita sic ambulare in via doctrinæ tuæ sequax vestigiorum tuorum, ut quo pervenisti ipse ad aliquam ejus gloriæ partem decedens ex hac luce, possim ego quoque tua gratia feliciter pervenire. Amen.

The above Rudiments or Institution of a Christian Man, by Dean Colet, was translated into Latin verse by Erasmus, as a sort of school catechism or instruction, at the request of the Dean. Erasmus writes in a letter to John Nævius, master of the Libian School at Louvain, and adds respecting his friend, "a good man, of singular wisdom, whose flourishing kingdom of England could hardly equal, or afford one other man more pious, or more truly a disciple of Christ," "seeing the sad and degenerate condition of the age, chose out the tender youth to work on, that he might put the new wine of Christ into new bottles."

Christiani Hominis Institutum, per Erasmus Rot. scriptum in usum scholæ Londini instituta per Joannem Coletum, inter epigrammata Dea. Erasmi Rot. 4to. Bas. 1518.

Valet in Christo fides quæ per dilectionem operatur.

Fides.

I. Articulus. Credo.

Confiteor primum ore pio, venerorque fideli
Mente Deum Patrem, vel nutu cuncta potentem.
Hunc, qui stelligeri spaciosa volumina coeli,
Et solidum omniparæ telluris condidit orbem.

II. Et in Jesum.

Ejus item gnatum Jesum, cognomine Christum,
Quem Dominum nobis agnoscimus, et veneramur.

III. Qui conceptus.

Hunc Maria, afflatu divini numinia, alvo
Concepit virgo, peperit purissima virgo.

IV. Passus sub Pontio.

Et grave supplicium immeritus damnaante Pilato
Pertulit, infami suffixus in arbore, mortem
Oppetiit, tumulatus humo est, claususque sepulchro,
Interea penetrat populatur ad infera regna.

V. Tertio die.

Mox ubi tertia lux monstro se promiserat orbi,
Emersit tumulo superas redivivus in auras.

VI. Ascendit.

Inde palam ætheream scandit sublimis in arcem,
Illic jam dexter Patri assidet omnipotenti.

VII. Iterum venturus est.

Idem olim rediturus, ut omnem judicet orbem,
Et vivos pariter, vitæque et lumine cassos.

VIII. Credo in Spiritum.

Te quoque credo fide simili spirabile numen
Halitus, afflatusque Dei sacer, omnia lustrans.

IX. Sanctam ecclesiam.

Et te confiteor sanctissima concio, quæ gens
Christigena arcano nexu coit omnis in unum
Corpus et unanimis capiti sociatur Iesu,
Hinc proprium nescit, sed habet communia cuncta.

X. Remissionem peccatorum.

Hoc equidem in costu sancto, peccata remitti
Credo, vel his sacro fuerint qui fonte renati,
Vel qui diluerint ultro sua crimina fletu.

XI. Carnis resurrectionem.

Nec dubito quin exanimata cadavera rursum
In vitam redeant, animas sortita priores.

XII. Vitam æternam.

Utræque pars nostri, corpusque animusque deinceps
Juncta simul, vitam ducent sine fine perennem.

Amor Dei.

Hæc est indubitata fides, cui pectore certo
 Nixus, amabo Patrem super omnia cunctipotentem,
 Qui me condi deritque, et in hunc produxit orbem
 Rursus amore pari Dominum complectar Iesum,
 Qui nos asseruit, pretioque redemit amico.
 Spiritum item Sanctum, qui me sine fine benigno
 Afflatus fovet, atque animi penetralia ditans
 Dotibus arcanis, vitali recreat aura.
 Atque hic Ternio Sanctus, et omni laude ferendus
 Toto ex corde mihi, tota de mente, supremis
 Viribus, obsequio, meritoque coletur honore.
 Hunc unum reverebor, et hoc semel omnis in uno
 Spes mea figetur, hoc omnia metiar uno.
 Hic propter sese mihi semper amabitur unus.

Amor sui.

Post hunc haud alia ratione, ac nomine charus
 Ipse mihi fuero, nisi quatenus omnis in illum
 Ille mei referatur amor, fontemque revisat.

Fuga peccati.

Culpam præterea fugiam pro viribus omnem.
 Præcipue capitale tamen vitavero crimen,
 Quod necat, atque animam letali vulnerat ictu.

Superbia, invidia, ira.

Ne fastu tumeam, ne vel livore maligno
 Torquear, aut bili rapiar fervente, cavebo.

Gula, luxuria, pigritia.

Ne vel spurca libido, vel insatiabilis alvus
 Imperet, enitar, nec turpis inertia vincat.

Avaritia.

Ne nunquam saturanda fames me vexet habendi,
 Plus satis ut cupiam fallacis munera mundi,

Fuga malorum hominum.

Improba pestiferi fugiam commercia coetus
 Omnia, summo animi conatu, proque virili.

Studium pietatis.

Atque huc incumbam nervis, ac pectore toto;
 Ut magis atque magis superet mihi gratia, virtus,
 Augescatque pie divina scientia menti.

Deprecatio.

Orabo, superosque precum libamine puro
 Placare adnitar, cum tempore sedulus omni,
 Tum vero eximie, quoties lux festa recurrit.

Frugalitas victus.

Frugales epule semper, mensæque placebit
 Sobria mundities, et avari nescia luxus.

Jejunium.

Servabo reverens, quoties jejunia nobis
 Indicit certis ecclesia sancta diebus.

Mentis custodia.

Sancta uti sint mihi secretæ penetralia mentis,
 Ne quid eo subeat fedumve, nocensve, studebo.

Lingua custodia.

Ne temere juret, ne unquam mendacia promat,
Turpia ne dictu dicat mea lingua, cavebo.

Manus custodia.

A furto cohibebo manus, nec ad ulla minuta
Viscatis mittam digitos, et si quid ademptum
Cuiquam erit, id domino properabo reddere vero.

Restitutio rei forte reperta.

Id quoque restituum, si quid mihi forte repertum est,
Me penes haud patiar prudens, aliena morari.

Amor proximi.

Nec secus atque mihi sum charus, amabitur omnis
Proximus: est autem (ni fallor) proximus ille,
Quisquis homo est, ac sic ut amor referatur amici
In Christum, vitamque piam, veramque salutem.
Huic igitur fuerit quoties opus, atque necease,
Sedulus officio corpusque, animumque juvabo,
Ut mihi succurri cupiam, si forsán egerem.
Id tamen in primis præstabo utrique parenti,
Per quos corporeo hoc nasci mihi contigit orbe.
Tum præceptor, qui me erudit, instituitque
Morigerus fuero, ac merito reverebor honore.
At rursus dulcisque scholæ, studiique sodales,
Semper (uti par est) sincero amplectar amore.

Assidua confessio.

Si quando crimen fuero prolapsus in ullum,
Protinus enitar, pura ut confessio lapsum
Erigat, ac justa tergatur noxia poena.

Sumptio corporis Christi in vita.

At ubi sacri me ad corporis atque cruoris
Cœlestes epulas pietasque diesque vocabit,
Illotis manibus metuens accedere, pectus
Ante meum, quanta cura studioque licebit,
Purgabo maculis, virtutum ornavo nitelis.

Morbus.

Porro ubi fatalis jam terminus ingruet ævi,
Extremumque diem cum morbus adesse monebit,
Mature sacramentis me armare studebo,
Atque his muneribus, quæ ecclesiæ sancta ministrat
Christigenis, reteget confessio crimina vitæ,
Sacrifico, sumam Christi venerabile corpus.

Hoc fac, et vives.

Erasmus also drew up in Iambic verse the inscription to signify the choice and preference of the child Jesus as the divine protector and governor of the school, which together with a Sapphic Ode imploring the divine aid and success to the foundation, was hung up in the *proscholia*.

Carmen Iambicum.

Non invenusto antiquitas ænigmate
Studii magistram, virginem
Finxit Minervam; ac litterarum præses
Finxit Camœnas virgines,
Nunc ipse virgo matre natus virgine

Presideo virgineo gregi;
 Et sospitator hujus et custos scholæ.
 Advant ministri virgines,
 Pueros meos mecum tuentes angeli.
 Mihi grata ubique puritas,
 Decetque studia litterarum puritas.
 Procul ergo sacro a limine
 Morum arceant mihi literatores luem;
 Nihil huc recipiant barbarum:
 Procul arceant illiteratas literas;
 Nec regna polluant mea.

Sapphicum Carmen.

Coepit faustis avibus, precamur,
 Semper augescens meliore fato,
 Hic novæ sudor novus officinae,
 Auspice IESU.
 Hic rudis (tanquam nova testa) pubes
 Literas Græcæ, simul et Latinas,
 Et fidem sacram, tenerisque CHRISTUM
 Combibet annia.

Quid fuit læta sobolem dedisse
 Corporis forma, nisi mens et ipsa
 Rite fingatur, studiisque castis
 Culta nitecat?

Stirpe ab hac sensim nova pullulabit
 Civium proles, pietate juxta ac
 Literis pollens, breviterque regno
 Digna Britanno.

Ludus hic sylvæ pariet future
 Semina; hinc dives nemus undequaque
 Densius surgens decorabit Anglum
 Latius orbem.

At the upper end of the school was the image of the child Jesus, for which Erasmus composed this distich:

*Discite me primum, pueri, atque effingite puris
 Moribus; inde pias addite literulas.*

He also composed the following as a sort of comment on the *Disce aut discede* now painted on the windows, and the tetrastic recommending the example of the child Jesus as the rule and original of wisdom and purity of life.

Carmen Phalæcium.

Sedes hæc puero sacra est IESU,
 Formandis pueris dicata; quare
 Edico, procul hinc faccescat, aut qui
 Spuris moribus, aut inerudita
 Ludum hunc inquinet eruditione.

Aliud.

Aliud.

Quin hunc ad puerum pueri concurritis omnes?
 Unus hic est vitæ regula fonsque pie.
 Hunc qui non sapiat, hujus sapientia stulta est:
 Absque hoc vita hominis mors (mihi crede) mora est.

Another excellent composition of Erasmus, for the use of the Paul's scholars, was an oration in praise of the child Jesus, (which was spoken publicly in the

school, by one of the scholars, at the solemn time of visiting the school,) in an admirable strain of Christian eloquence, recommending the example of Jesus in his childhood, and exhorting the schoolfellows to follow his steps in all piety and virtue. This has been frequently published under the title of *Concio de puero Jesu, pronunciata a puero in schola Coletica nuper instituta Londini*. To which (no doubt at the like desire of dean Colet) were added two short prayers for the daily use of every scholar; one for docility, or aptness and application to learning; the other, for a blessing on his parents.

Precatio Puerilis pro Docilitate.

Audi preces meas, æterna Patris Sapientia, Domine Jesu; qui teneræ ætati docilitatis commodum addidisti: adde, queso, ad naturæ propensionem auxilium gratiæ tuæ, ut literas ac liberales disciplinas citius perdiscam, sed tuæ gloriæ servituras; quarum adminiculis adjuta mens mea plenius assequatur cognitionem tui, quem nosse felicitatis humanæ summa est: utque ad tuæ sanctissimæ pueritiæ exemplum indies proficiam ætate, sapientia, et gratia apud Deum, et apud homines; qui vivis et regnas in consortio Patris et Spiritus Sancti, in æterna secula. Amen.

Precatio pro Parentibus.

Domine Deus, qui nos secundum te plurimum honoris parentibus nostris habere voluisti, nec inter officia pietatis minimum est pro parentum incolunitate tuam bonitatem interpellare; serva, quesumus, parentes meos cum omni familia; primum in tuæ religionis amore, deinde tutos a corporis et animi perturbatione. Mihi vero præsta, ne quid illis ex me molestiarum accedat; denique ut ego illos, illi te proprium habeant, qui supremus es omnium Pater. Amen.

These prayers are still recited by the pupils of St. Paul's School at the beginning and end of each school day.

A few years after the publication and general use of these Rudiments, (which related chiefly to the more easy construing of Latin, and are now, with some improvement, placed in the common accidence after the eight parts of speech, though made before,) dean Colet proceeded to draw up, for the familiar use of his boys that other little tract on the Construction of the Eight Parts of Speech; which, with some alterations, and great additions, now makes up the syntax in Lilye's vulgar grammar. He sent it to the master of his school, Mr. Lilye, with a very ingenious and affectionate epistle, dated from his own house in the year 1513.

Methinks, my dear Lilye, I bear the same affection to my new school, as a parent does to his only son; to whom he is not only willing to pass over his whole estate, but is desirous even to impart his own bowels also: and as the father thinks it to little purpose to have begotten a son, unless by diligent education he raises him up into a good and useful man; so to my own mind it is by no means sufficient that I have raised (i. e. begotten) this school, and have conveyed my whole estate to it, (even during my own life and health,) unless I likewise take all possible care to nurture it in good letters and Christian manners, and bring it on to some useful maturity and perfection. For this reason, master, I send you this small treatise of the Construction of the Eight Parts of Speech; small indeed in itself, but such as will afford no small advantage to our scholars, if you diligently teach and explain it. You knew Horace was pleased with brevity in the way of teaching; and I very much approve of

his opinion in that matter. If in the reading of the classic authors any notable examples to these rules shall offer themselves, it will be your part to mark them as they shall occur. Farewell. From my house, 1513.

Dean Colet had such humble thoughts of his own performance upon this subject, that he charged Mr. Lilye to amend it and improve it, and then return it into his hands: and even when master Lilye had finished his emendations upon it, the dean would still have it brought, if possible, to a greater perfection. So he sends the papers to the best critic in Europe, Erasmus; and importunes him to give the finishing strokes to it. Erasmus could not but comply, as he tells us, with such a friend, who might ask, and even command, any thing from him: and after he had engaged in it, he made so many amendments and alterations in it, that Lilye could not in modesty own it for his work; nor could Erasmus, in justice call it his own. However it was published in 1515, by Erasmus, with an epistle, dated from Basil, 3. cal. Aug. giving an honorable account of the great concern that Mr. dean Colet had for his school, and how careful he was to make the book pass through several hands, that it might be the more correct and complete.

When dean Colet had obtained from Erasmus so many good essays, both in poetry and prose, toward directing and securing the principles and morals of the boys; his next care was to procure some grammatical and critical performances, to lead and assist the boys in classic authors, and the literature contained in them. So walking one day in his garden with Erasmus, and hearing him mention his pains in drawing up two books, *De Copia Verborum ac Rerum*, to form the style and help the invention of young scholars; Colet asked him to dedicate that new work to his new school of Paul's. No, says Erasmus, your school is too poor and bare, I must have a patron of some ready money; and he telling him the charge he had been at in books and papers, and transcribers for that purpose; the dean answered, that he could not afford a just reward for those labors, but he would willingly give him fifteen angels; upon his repeating the promise, Erasmus did at last accept it. Dean Colet then complied readily with the expectation of Erasmus; who therefore dedicated the said books *De Copia*, &c. to him, in the following very eloquent epistle, dated from London, 3 cal. May, 1520.

I can not but extremely commend, my dear Colet, your singular and truly Christian piety; who have hitherto directed all the endeavours and labors of your life, not to the seeking of your own private interest, but to the consulting the good of your country, especially of your native city. Nor do I less admire your judgment, in choosing out two of the most proper methods for the full attainment of these glorious ends. For you saw the greatest fruits of love and charity would arise from the pains of instilling into the minds of people the knowledge of Christ by constant sermons, and a diligent teaching of the word of God: and therefore in this exercise you have now spent many years; I need not say with what praise and commendation, (for that you despise,) but I may say, with great profit to the hearers; upon which duty of preaching the gospel your own apostle St. Paul (otherwise modest, and sparing enough of his own praises) did often boast, and in a manner pride himself. Then for a second effectual means of answering the same public ends, you have founded a very beautiful and magnificent school, where, under the choicest and best approved masters, the British youth, in their tender years, might imbibe the Christian religion and good letters; as rightly apprehending, that from that tender age, in bud and blossom, the commonwealth might justly hope and expect, in time, the fruit in proportion; and that it would be an infinite advantage to mankind in every stage of life, to be well instructed from their cradle. And in both these

respects, who would not love and admire that generous greatness of mind, (I was going to say that holy pride,) in you, that you paid both these regards to your country in such sincere and disinterested a manner; that by so many elaborate sermons, in so long a course of years, you are not one farthing the richer; and though you sowed in such plenty your spiritual things, you reaped no man's carnal things? And again, though the expenses of your school were such an immense burden, that it might well have affrighted any noble peer, yet you took it all upon yourself; when the common sort of mankind are well pleased to admit of any assistance in such cases, you chose to spend your patrimony, your whole revenue, your very furniture and household goods, rather than to admit any one soul to be a partner in the glory of your ample foundation. What is this but to have a fatherly affection for all your children, that is, for all your fellow citizens? You become poor, to make them rich; naked, to clothe and adorn them; by your great labors, you well nigh destroy yourself, to make them grow in Christ; in a word, you spend yourself, to gain them unto salvation. Surely he must be very envious, who will not heartily favor such good works; and he must be notoriously impious, who shall dare to speak against them. He is an enemy to England, who would not, according to his power, help and promote them. For my own part, I am not ignorant how much I am indebted to this kingdom in general, and how much to you my special friend: and therefore I thought it my duty to bestow some small literary present toward the beautifying and adorning of your new school; and to dedicate these commentaries about the copiousness of words and things to the use and benefit of your school at Paul's; a work befitting the wants of young learners, and such, I hope, as may be very serviceable to them. Farewell, my best and most excellent Colet, Lond. 1512, 3 kal. Mail.

The last act of Erasmus's kindness to the dean's school, was to find out at Cambridge, (where he then was,) an usher, or second master, according to the founder's desire, to be under Mr. William Lilye. He inquired among the masters of arts there; but he could meet with none, it seems, that cared for, or were fit for that place, who would engage in it. They did not affect so laborious an employment, however honorable the terms might be. One of the seniors said, in a flouting way, *Who would lead such a slavish life among boys, in a school, if he can have any other way of living?* "I answered gravely," says Erasmus, "that the office of instructing youth in letters and good manners was a very creditable office, that our blessed Saviour himself did not despise the conversing with children; that no age was so capable of good instruction, and a man could no where bestow his pains with a better prospect of success, than at Paul's school, which was in the heart of the city, and center of the kingdom: besides, said I, if men have a true sense of religion, they must needs think, that there is no better way of pleasing and serving God than by the bringing of children to Christ; i. e. training them up to piety, and virtue, and knowledge. But upon this he turned up his nose, and said in a deriding manner, *If any man desires to be an absolute servant of Christ, he may go into a monastery, and take the vows of religion upon him.* I told him, Paul placed true religion in the works of charity; and the greatest charity was to do most good unto our neighbors: but he laughed at this, as a silly way of talking. Well, says he, *we students seem to have left all; we must be here in a state of perfection.* No, said I, a man can not be said to have left all, who, when he can do good to the world in any station, declines it, because he thinks it too mean for him: and so, to prevent any further dispute, I took my leave of him.

He had also in a former letter mentioned his fruitless endeavors to serve him in the affair of an usher. And he did not only in the former of these epistles, but whenever he had an opportunity, encourage men of letters to undertake

the laborious care of a grammar school, of which he often speaks in the highest commendation, as what exalts the schoolmaster to the highest dignity, whose business is to season youth in learning and religion, and raise up men for the service of their country. "It may be," says he, "the employment is accounted vile and mean in the opinion of fools, but in itself it is really great and honorable."

The aforesaid story about the aversion of men in the university to the drudgery of a grammar school, was by way of postscript to a letter, wherein Erasmus acquainted the dean that he had almost finished his book *de Copia*, (before mentioned,) and yet upon the subject of plenty he found himself in great want.

Having before mentioned Erasmus's pains, in seeking out for a proper person for the usher's place in Paul's school, I am now to add, that being not discouraged in his quest, he did at length very probably recommend Mr. John Rytwise; who being born at Sawl, in Norfolk, and bred at Eaton school, was now member of King's College, at Cambridge, and being retained by dean Colet, as usher to his school, was, for his ability and industry, very agreeable to the head master, Lilye.

Under these two excellent masters of Paul's school, if there was any fault in the management of it, it was in the practice of too much severity, owing a little to the roughness of that age, and to the established customs of cruelty: somewhat too may be attributed to that austere temper of the founder, Dr. Colet; who verily thought there was a necessity of harsh discipline to humble the spirit of boys, to inure them to hardship, and prepare them for mortifications and other sufferings and afflictions in the world.

This severity appears by several passages in Erasmus's works; particularly in his tract of the Education of Youth, where he falls upon the rigid French schoolmasters of the Sootical clan, than whom nothing more cruel; and yet when reproved for this their cruelty, they replied, that this nation, (as was said of Phrygia,) is only to be amended by such a harsh proceeding. "Whether this be true or not, I will not dispute," says Erasmus, "but must own, there is a good deal of difference between one people and another as to this point; but much more in the disposition of children. You may kill some before you can make them one whit better by beating; and yet at the same time with good words, and good usage, you may do what you please with them. Of this temper I own myself to have been when a boy. And my master, of whom I was a great favorite, because he was pleased to have conceived great hopes of me, having a mind to get a thorough knowledge of my disposition, did therefore make a trial how I could bear a sound whipping. Upon this a fault was cooked up, of which, (God knows,) I never so much as dreamed; and accordingly I suffered the discipline of the school. Immediately I lost all manner of relish to my studies; and this usage did so damp my spirits that it almost broke my heart. From hence we may see, that these illiterate butchers, (to give them no better term,) ruin many a hopeful lad. These conceited, morose, drunken, cruel creatures, exercise this their severity as a piece of pleasure; and from another's pain take great satisfaction. They are, indeed, fitter for the business of a butcher, or hangman, than to be instructors of youth. And it is an observation not ill-grounded, that the most ignorant schoolmasters are generally the best at this exercise. For what is done in their schools? and in what do they spend their days? Nothing but noisy stripes and chidings."

Erasmus therefore approved of the practice of Speusippus, who caused the pictures of joy and gladness to be set round about his school; "to signify, (as the excellent archbishop Tillotson observes,) that the business of education ought to be rendered as pleasant as may be; and that children stand in need of all enticements and encouragements to learning and goodness imaginable: for, (as one says,) *Metus haud diuturni magister officii*, fear alone will not teach a man his duty, and hold him to it; but rather causes a lasting disgust to both learning and virtue, (and to use Erasmus's words,) *Virtutem simul odiosae et noxae*."

Thus we find Erasmus was of a contrary opinion; and more for the merciful and gentle way of education: who therefore was almost angry with the dean and his two masters. He judged of human nature according to his own share of it; and therefore was for the milder and softer ways of teaching. He seems to wish that boys could play and learn at the same time; and it is with approbation and pleasure that he tells this story of an English gentleman. "One day seeing his little son very fond of shooting, bought him a fine bow and arrows, which was painted with the letters of the Greek and Latin alphabet: and so for the but, or mark to shoot at; the like capital letters were drawn upon it: and when he hit a letter, and could tell the name of it, he had, besides the applause of the bystanders, a cherry, or some such trifle, for his reward."

Erasmus also was a great enemy to that laborious way of trifling and losing time, which had lately obtained in grammar schools; the going round as it were, in a mill, with sweat and noise, and getting by heart so many lines, without understanding the sense of them; too much the custom of idleness in England and Holland. He showed also a very good judgment; that boys should be sent early to a grammar school, before their minds are corrupted with any ill habit of tenderness, slothfulness, or other impediment of learning; and then that they should not be taken away too soon to the university, to be confounded with logic, before they rightly understand their grammar; and, in a manner, to unlearn the little they had learned at school.

Sir Thomas More likewise doth often complain of the then vulgar method of teaching grammar, and the intricate systems of it; particularly of the *Parva Legalia* of Albertus, full of abstruse and trifling rules to puzzle and confound the poor boys.

But Erasmus was, above all, solicitous for the morals and virtuous dispositions of children. He would have them read no authors but what were clean and chaste, and be in no company but what was innocent and uninfected.

We find by one of the dean's statutes, he was much of his mind; for he orders several Christian authors, (*viz.*, Lactantius, Sedulus, Juvenius, &c.) to be used in his school, for fear the children's morals should be corrupted by some of the heathen writers.

Erasmus also thought boys carried from school, as from their first vessel, that savor or tincture of good and evil that prevailed in all their following course of life, and gave them the right or the wrong bent and turn, to be wise and useful in their generation, or to be a sort of rakes and reprobates for ever.

He used to talk over this subject with dean Colet, upon the occasion of discoursing about the masters and scholars of Paul: and the dean fully declared himself of the same opinion, that boys would imbibe their principles and morals from the books and the company they conversed with. It is probable, that

upon this observation the dean made it a proverbial saying of his, "We are all such as our conversation is, and come habitually to practice what we frequently hear." This apothegm, or wise saying of dean Colet, is remembered by Erasmus in his elaborate collection of Adages; and is preferred before any of the sentences of the ancient philosophers.

On this solid foundation, with a Governing Body removed from the temptation of devoting the funds from their legitimate purpose, and with a liberty of action to meet the altered circumstances of a progressive society—with teachers, books, subjects, and methods of study, in advance of any existing school, St. Paul entered at once on a work of beneficence which entitles its founder to a high place among the benefactors of his country and his race. In the long and brilliant array of Paulines, trained by Lilly and his successors, we distinguish such names as the Norths, [Sir Edward, Francis, Lord Guilford, Dr. John, Sir Dudley, Frederic, Lord North, the premier from 1770 to 1782,] John Leland, William Camden, John Milton, Samuel Pepys, Benjamin Calamy, Roger Cotes, John the Great Duke of Marlborough, Sir Philip Francis, Bishop Hooper, Bishop Bradford, Halley the astronomer, Bishop Fisher, Sir Frederick Pollock, Sir Charles Wetherell, Lord Chancellor Truro, Professor Jowett, &c., &c.

Few public schools can claim to have educated more men who figure prominently in English history than this foundation of John Colet, and with such modifications in its governing body, and in the fundamental ordinances as this wise man anticipated to be necessary and provided for making on the advice of "good lettered and learned men," it will still contribute largely to the scholarship and statesmanship of England.

List of the High or Upper Masters of St. Paul's School.

1512.	William Lilly,	continued 10 yrs.	1657.	S. Cromleholme,	contin. 15 yrs.
1523.	John Ritwyse,	" 10 "	1672.	Dr. Thomas Gale,	" 25 "
1532.	Richard Jones,	" 17 "	1697.	John Postlethwayte,	" 16 "
1549.	Thomas Freeman,	" 10 "	1713.	Philip Ascough,	" 8 "
1559.	John Cooke,	" 14 "	1721.	Benjamin Morland,	" 12 "
1573.	William Malym,	" 8 "	1733.	Timothy Crumpe, d. 1737,	4 "
1581.	John Harrison,	" 15 "	1737.	George Charles, D.D.,	" 11 "
1596.	Rich'd Mulcaster,	" 12 "	1748.	Geo. Thicknesse, res'd.,	" 21 "
1608.	Alexander Gill,	" 27 "	1769.	Richard Roberts, D.D.,	" 45 "
1635.	Dr. Alexand'r Gill,	" 5 "	1814.	John Sleath, D.D.,	" 24 "
1640.	John Langley,	" 17 "	1838.	Herbert Kynaston.	

Educational Staff in 1865.

High Master,—Rev. Herbert Kynaston, D. D.

Sub Master,—Rev. J. H. Lupton, M. A.

Third Master,—Rev. E. T. Hudson, M. A.

Assistant Master,—Rev. J. W. Shepard, M. A.

Mathematical Master,—E. A. Hadley, M. A.

French Masters,—M. T. Pagliardini, M. Stievenard.

The Royal Commissioners recommend the appointment by the Court of Assistants, of a Lecturer on Natural Science; and that the High Master be authorized to appoint a German teacher, and masters of Drawing and Music, and that half-yearly prizes be given for proficiency in these subjects, and in Natural Science.

II. REPORT OF HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS—1864.

History. The Commissioners do not go largely into the history of this school—quoting Erasmus's authority that "it was the best school in his time," and that it reached its palmy state in the time of Dr. Sleath, (1814–1838,) but that of late it has fallen off in its share of academical distinctions.

Endowments. The income of the property conveyed by deed and will of Dean Colet to the Mercers' Company, for the support of this school, at the time of the foundation, was £118, 4s. 7d, he having expended on the buildings £4,500. The income for 1860 was £9,549, 16s. 5d. Of this sum, £2,370 only were paid out as stipends to the masters. The Mercers' Company claim that they are beneficially interested in the surplus, which has now accumulated to a very large sum, and which might quadruple the educational objects of the foundation.

Government of the School. The Governing Body of the school is the Master, Wardens, and Fellows of the Mercers' Company, who annually choose "two honest and substantial men, called Surveyors of the School," whose main business seem to be, to enter the school on certain fixed days four times a year to pay the masters their quarterly stipends. The Governing Body can take the advice of "well-literate and learned men, to supply any default as time and place and just occasion shall demand." The examinations are conducted by experts specially appointed, but with no authority beyond recommendations.

Masters and their stipends. In place of the high master, sub-masters, and chaplain of the original ordinances, there are at present seven masters; four classical, one for mathematics, and two for French. The present stipends paid out of the school revenues are as follows:—

High Master,.....	£900
Sub Master,.....	400
Third Master,.....	320
Fourth Master,.....	300
Mathematical Master,.....	200
French Master,...	150
Assistant French Master,.....	100

"In addition to the above, the high master has the rents of two houses at Stepney, a residence for himself" contiguous to the school, "with rates, taxes, and repairs found him, and a gown every year." The other three classical masters have likewise residences, the rates and taxes of which are paid for them, and a "gown every year."

As the original number of eight classes fixed by the founder has been retained to the present day, it follows that each classical master, the high master included, has the entire charge of two classes of from fifteen to twenty boys each.

The Commissioners recommend the appointment of an additional classical master, to give the head master ample time for general superintendence and occasional examinations of the school. They also advise that provision be made for instruction in German, music, drawing, and natural science. And that all the teachers constitute a School Council, and that the head master have the appointment of his own assistants, who are now, including the head mas-

ter, appointed annually by the Board of Assistants, and removable at their pleasure.

Scholars. Every boy is a scholar on the foundation, from the moment of his admission, and the number is limited to 153—a faithful adherence to the letter of the Dean's ordinance, but not the spirit—as the boys are admitted on nomination by each member of the Court of Assistants, in rotation.

"The examination to which the nominees are subjected is of the most elementary description, and does not even reach the standard fixed in the original Ordinances, to say nothing of that higher standard which the altered condition of the times evidently suggests; and though we are informed that one distinguished member of the Court has introduced an important improvement in the case of his own nominees, it does not appear that this enlightened example has been followed by others. It is not too much to say that so far as regards the personal and intellectual fitness of its recipients, the benefits of a gratuitous education are conferred at hap-hazard, and with these benefits the chance, at least, of a handsome provision at the university. The contrast which this mode of appointment presents to the excellent and most successful system now in force at Eaton and Winchester is too obvious to need illustration; and without instituting comparisons which may seem invidious, it is clear that in this respect the practice of the school falls as far short of the ideas and requirements of the present age, as the directions of the founder rose above those of his own day.

We may even go further, and say that the present system of admission is positively injurious to the cause of education, inasmuch as it offers a temptation to parents to neglect the early training of their children; and we have it on the authority of the high master that this temptation is but too often yielded to. "Some," he says, "are occasionally brought to us even twelve years old, utterly ignorant of the first elements of the commonest knowledge." And the evil seems to be a growing one. Formerly the best boys came at eleven or twelve years of age, having previously had some good training; but now the case is reversed, and they either come a little younger, knowing nothing at all, or at the same age, knowing a little more; so that they must be taught their accidence."

These evils are indeed but the natural result of the vicious system of nomination, and can only be cured by introducing some form of competition among the candidates for admission. We should prefer that such competition should be unrestricted, as it is at Eaton or Winchester; but even in a modified form, it would be of great value; and in recommending the following scheme we are confident that we act in accordance with the intentions of the liberal and far-sighted founder.

Let two examinations be held annually, to be conducted either by two of the masters, or by two paid examiners appointed for the purpose. On the occasion of each examination, let any member of the Court who may desire it, have the privilege of nominating two or three candidates, so as to provide a body of fifty or sixty candidates for each ten or fifteen vacancies. After the examination, let a list be formed of the candidates in the order of merit, those standing first on the list to be first admitted, and those who fail to obtain admission in the course of the half year, to have one other chance, if their patrons choose to nominate them at the next half-yearly examination. This scheme to remain in force so

long as the school shall remain on its present site. We suggest eleven as the minimum and fourteen as the maximum age of candidates for admission.

Classes—Promotion. The scholars are distributed into eight classes, as fixed by Dean Colet, and the classes are counted from the lowest upward. The youngest boy was nine years and nine months, and the oldest eighteen and five months. The disparities of age in the middle classes is a very great injury to the principle of promotion—which depends on proficiency in classical scholarship, including, to some extent, history and geography. The Commissioners recommend that the conditions of promotion should be enlarged so as to include mathematics, and one modern language, as well as some allowance for proficiency in music and drawing. The rank stated before on the results of special examination and daily class marks in each study.

The exhibitions annually awarded are as follows:

One of £120 a year, tenable in any college in either university.

One of £100, and one of £80, founded by Lord Viscount Campden, and tenable only at Trinity College, Cambridge.

One or more of £50 tenable, without restriction, at Oxford or Cambridge.

These are awarded in accordance with results of the examination by examiners specially appointed every year, in which mathematical marks count as one to three of classical.

Besides these larger exhibitions, there is one of £80, and four of £10 each, at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge; five of £13 a year at Trinity, and two of £10 at St. John's College—each awarded on certain conditions.

Prizes are annually awarded for Greek iambs, Latin hexameters, Latin Essays and English Essays, but none for Natural Science, German, or French, Music or Drawing.

Rewards are also bestowed on pupils of St. Paul who obtain distinction at the university, or in competitive examinations instituted by parliamentary authority.

The Commissioners remark, that the exhibitions are too numerous and too easily obtained, and that the remedy is to change the mode and age of admission, and make the exhibitors tenable at any college. They also recommend that prizes should be given for proficiency in German, natural science, music and drawing. A writer in Blackwood's Magazine on the London Schools, remarks:

"St Paul's is lavish in prizes and exhibitions to the universities—too lavish in proportion to the amount of competition for them, as the head master boldly complains, and as the Commissioners fully agree. There are usually not more than five or six boys who go off to college every year, (a strangely small proportion, when it is considered that the 153 scholars are "almost invariably" the sons of clergymen or professional men—"West End boys,") and all of them get exhibitions. The captain of the year gets one of £120, for four years, tenable with any scholarship at any college in either university; the next has one of £100 to Trinity, Cambridge; the next £80, and the Court give as many of £50 each as may be required, "to any one that the examiners say is fit to go to the university." Besides this liberal provision, the Court of Assistants is in the habit of giving an *honorarium* to those who after leaving school obtain scholarships or honors at the universities, or what the Commissioners term "certain supposed distinctions in public competitive examinations." Not less than £160 was expended under this head in the year 1860. The Secretary, in draw-

ing up the report on these points, relieves his mind from the dryness of detail by a touch of satire not uncongenial to him. He observes in the name of the Commissioners that "the principle of giving a boy an exhibition on the mere certificate of the examiners that he is not absolutely unfit to hold it, is to us a novel one;" and that "to bestow a sum of money upon a young man as a reward for having obtained a considerable addition to his income, is a proceeding the reasons of which are not self-evident."

School Hours—Recreation. The school hours have been reduced from eight to six, an interval of only half an hour being allowed between the morning and afternoon session—which is too short for lunch and play. For boys coming from a distance a mid-day meal on the premises should be provided, and for all pupils, opportunities of out-door recreation in the intervals of school should be secured.

Discipline. The relations of boys to each other and to the masters in a day-school are much simpler than in a boarding school.

The same writer in *Blackwood's Magazine*, (for October, 1864, above quoted,) on this point of discipline, observes:

"In some points St. Paul's is what many parents would consider a model school. There is no flogging, and no flogging. "That truly British institution, the rod," is, to Mr. Commissioner Vaughan's astonishment, unknown in those happy precincts. There is only its weak substitute, the cane. Even that instrument, however, in able hands, had been made in former times to do a good deal of duty. Now, only six formal cuts are administered, always on the hand; but when the present head master first entered upon his duties, he found a good deal of what cricketers call "lively hitting to all parts of the field" going on—"especially about the legs and back;" so much so, that "the noise alone formed a great obstruction to the progress of the school duties." The reason why the young Paulines are neither fagged nor birched lies in the fact of the school being exclusively a day school. When boys only associate with each other in the school room, under the immediate eye of the masters, and separate immediately afterward for their several homes, any system of flogging would be neither possible nor desirable; and any exceptional instances of the kind the master would very properly check: so also, having little or no connection with the school except during lesson hours, the only offenses which usually come under the master's eye are those of idleness or disorder; the moral discipline of the boys must be supposed to rest wholly with the parents, and those graver moral offenses, to which the punishment of flogging in most public schools is now almost exclusively confined, can very rarely come under the master's cognizance. Of course, a mere day school education in a city like London, and where the boys, as at St. Paul's, spend perhaps two hours of the day in going and returning from school, with an additional hour's break in the middle of the day, when they are allowed to go wherever they please to get their lunch or dinner, is liable to the serious objection that the gravest moral misconduct may go on without either master or parent being aware of it. In fact, Dr. Kynaston fairly disclaims for himself any real responsibility for his scholars in any respect except their school work; "he has not an opportunity of observing the moral conduct of the boys, except in their general propriety of demeanor, and in matters of discipline between the master and the boys." This, with the want of social intercourse in the boarding house and the play ground, which has been already noticed, is the point in which London day school life falls so far short of the best public school training. Such school friendships as are

formed, depend, it is confessed, somewhat on the accident of "going home the same way," or some other chance association. Yet with all these disadvantages, one is pleased as well as surprised to find that it used to be said of the Paulines at the universities, that they "hung together more than other schools;" though it was "perhaps because they went up only three or four together, not like a large school, where they send up thirty or forty."

Religious Observances and Instruction. The chapel provided by the founder was consumed in the great fire and was not restored, and the chaplain was converted into an assistant master. The observances originally required were, (1.) that every child on entering the school shall salute the child Jesus, an image of whom well sculptured, stood at the upper end of the room; (2.) that at the time of the "saying," (elevation of the Host,) in the adjoining chapel, every child should remain kneeling; and (3.) that thrice in a day, (morning, noon, and evening,) they shall say the prayers duly prescribed. At present, at the beginning and ending of each school time, Latin prayers, including two of Erasmus's, are read by the captain. The Greek Testament is read, and certain scripture lessons got. But the boys depend on their parents and religious patrons for their religious education. Boys of all denominations are admitted provided they can produce certificates of baptism.

School Terms and Holidays. The school terms occupy forty weeks, and half holidays are Wednesdays and Saturdays, and whole holidays are Shrove Tuesday, Ash Wednesday, Queen's Birthday, Coronation Day, Fawkes' Day—Fifth of November, and Lord Mayor's Day, and such other days as are commanded by the sovereign, or a bishop.

Results as to Scholarship. The number of boys leaving for the universities is not more than five or six annually, and these principally to Cambridge. And while scholarships, prizes and other distinctions are won by Paulines, the Commissioners think "that much more ought to be done." The paucity of Fellowship, obtained at Trinity as compared with the Scholarships, seems to prove that first-rate attainments are at present rare, and confirms us in the view we have already expressed, of the necessity for a more effective and vigorous competition, and a better system of admission to the school. It is certain that the founder looked for great literary and educational results, and in past times his hopes were not disappointed. But of late years the school appears to have contributed but little to the educating body of either university, or to the wisdom of public schools, or the military service of the country.

Proposals for Improvement. The Commissioners recommend the sale of the present site, where the noise of the traffic seriously interrupts the work of the school, and affects unfavorably the health of the boys, and the erection of better and larger accommodations within the metropolitan district, so as to realize the design of Dean Colet, for a day-school for the dwellers in London, which might and ought to become the first in the city, and one of the first in Great Britain. To the school "the present system of admission by nomination should be abandoned, and the foundation thrown open, as at Eaton and Winchester, to perfectly unrestricted competition. Until this is done, St. Paul will not take that rank among schools which its founder designed, and which it can actually possess." They recommend a radical change in the Governing Body, and investing the high master with the power of appointing and dismissing all the assistant masters; and that the choice of masters be not restricted to former Paulines, nor to particular colleges.

As guardians indeed of the school property, the Court of Assistants appear as we have already remarked, to have performed their duty both honorably and efficiently; nor are we disposed to criticise too severely their distribution of its annual income, though we may think that in some important particulars its ample funds might have been, not more honestly, but more wisely, applied. But the administration of the school property is one thing, the government of the school is another; and assuredly a body constituted as is the Court of Assistants, can not be considered as in all respects "suitable and efficient for the purposes and duties" which the Governing Body of a school is or ought to be called upon to fulfill. The number is, in our opinion, too large, and as it is impossible that the members of the Court should be selected with any special view to their knowledge or experience of educational matters, or to their literary or scientific attainments, it must, we think, inevitably happen that the majority will consist of persons indisposed to trust to their own judgment in considering any plan that may be brought before them for the improvement of the school, or the extension of its field of usefulness. The tendencies of such a body will not be progressive, and it is, therefore, no matter of surprise that we should have had to echo the complaint of a Commission which reported more than a quarter of a century ago. The plan for the extension of the school which we have proposed, will probably necessitate important changes in the nature and working of the system, and it is evidently most desirable that the renovated institution should be watched during its early years with an attentive and intelligent eye.

That a school of such magnitude as this will be, should be administered with a view solely to the higher educational interests of the metropolis, is what the country has a right to demand of those who will have the distribution of its ample resources; but the recent history of St. Paul's School has shown that there has been a growing tendency in the Court of Assistants to narrow the sphere of its operation, and convert it more and more from a public school into a mere charitable foundation, useful doubtless to individuals, but of inferior public importance. It would be a grievous injury to the cause of classical education if the same principles of exclusive patronage were allowed to obstruct admission to a school which might and ought to become the first in London, and one of the first in Great Britain. More liberal views we know to be entertained by those members of the Court who have taken the most active part in the management of the school, and whose opinion is therefore most valuable; but the evidence of these gentlemen gives us little reason to suppose that their views are gaining ground among their colleagues.

These, in our opinion would, under circumstances otherwise favorable, be valid reasons for recommending some modification in the Governing Body, similar in principle to the changes proposed in those of Eaton, Winchester, and Westminster. The time seems to have arrived when more formal and systematic effect should be given to the memorable ordinance of the founder, that on important occasions recourse should be had to the advice of "well-literate and learned men." The spirit of this ordinance would be preserved by such a reconstitution of the Governing Body as should include on the one hand the Master, Wardens, and Surveyors, with perhaps one or two elective members of the Mercers' Company, and on the other an equal number of persons extraneous to the Company, to be selected by the Crown in consideration of personal eminence or special fitness to superintend a place of liberal education.

IX. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ITALY.

Introductory to an outline of the system of public instruction projected for Italy under its new political organization, we present the best summary we could collect of the condition of education in the different states in 1850.

1. SUMMARY OF CONDITION ON EDUCATION IN 1850.

ITALY comprises,

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| 1. The kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, with 5,068,000 inhabitants. | |
| 2. The kingdom of Sardinia, | 5,292,000 |
| 3. The Duchy of Parma, | 479,900 |
| 4. The Duchy of Modena, | 490,000 |
| 5. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany, | 1,752,000 |
| 6. The Republic of San Marino, | 8,200 |
| 7. The State of the Church, | 2,970,000 |
| 8. The kingdom of Naples, | 8,373,000 |

In all of these States there is legal provision made for public education, besides a large number of schools connected with religious houses and charitable institutions. The institutions and endowments for charitable purposes exceed in number and amount those of any other portion of Europe.

I. LOMBARDY AND VENICE.

The system of public instruction in the Austrian dominions in Italy, is substantially the same as in Austria proper. It embraces, 1. elementary schools of two grades; 2. technical schools; 3. gymnasiums; 4. lyceums; and 5. universities. The following account of the system and the schools, is taken from a valuable work on "Italy and the Italians, by Frederic Von Raumer.

According to the principal law on the subject of schools of an inferior order, there are two gradations of elementary schools, from those with one class to those with three or four. To these are added what are called technical schools. In the lower elementary schools the first principles of religion are taught, together with reading, writing, and arithmetic. The higher elementary schools are intended for those who purpose devoting themselves to the arts or sciences. The technical schools are chiefly intended to prepare youth for commerce and agriculture. The law compels parents to send their children to school between the ages of six and twelve, and a fine of half a lira per month is incurred by those who neglect to do so; but is not enforced in Lombardy. Wherever circumstances allow of its being done, the education of boys is separate from that of girls. A building for school, and the necessary supply of desks, forms, &c., must be provided by the commune. In the cold and mountainous districts only are the school-rooms warmed in winter. The books prescribed for these schools vary in price from forty-two centesimi to a florin. In the higher elementary schools, religion, orthography, Italian grammar, the elements of Latin, mathematics, natural philosophy, geography, and natural history, are taught. In the technical schools instruction is given in modern lan-

guages,—English, German, and French. The clergy are recommended, not merely to give religious instruction, but also to take charge of some other of the lessons. The general superintendence of religious instruction, is committed to the bishops. For opening a private school, an express permission must be obtained from government.

The elementary schools in Lombardy* amounted

In number, in	1835	1836	1837
to	4,422	4,470	4,531
including private schools,	701	995	726

In 1837, there remained only 66 communes without an elementary school for boys, so that, if the education be not general among children, the fault must arise less from the want of public institutions than from the want of good-will. The outlay for elementary schools amounted, in 1837, to 507,000 florins. Of this 21,000 florins were derived from endowments, 423,000 were contributed by the communes, and 63,000 were defrayed by the State. Of every 100 schools, 84 were public, and of every 100 pupils, 59 were boys and 41 girls. About three-fifths of the children of a suitable age attend school; and of those that do so, 91 per cent. attend public, and 9 per cent. private schools. The teachers (including 2,226 clergymen, directors, and school authorities) amount in number to 6,284. The infant schools are attended by 2,026 children, and directed by 93 teachers; their yearly revenues amount to about 16,000 florins. Thus we every where perceive the cause of education advancing, and the several communes manifest their praiseworthy sympathy by constantly increasing votes for the support of schools.

In immediate connection with the higher order of elementary schools are the gymnasiums, of which some are public, some communal, some in immediate dependence on the bishops, and other private institutions. In Lombardy, in 1837, there were 10 imperial gymnasiums, with 96 teachers and 2,865 pupils; 8 communal, with 1,291 pupils. The private gymnasiums were attended by about 1,168 pupils. None but teachers who have been strictly examined are allowed to give lessons in a private gymnasium, the pupils must all be entered on the list of a public school, to which they are bound to pay a yearly contribution of two florins, and at which they must submit to periodical examinations. Private gymnasiums must adopt the course of study prescribed for public institutions, and must not allow their pupils to remain less than the regulated period in each class. Those intended for the church, for the medical profession, or for that of architecture, must be educated at a public school, and those intended for the law are subject to a variety of stringent rules.

All the elementary schools of Lombardy are placed under an inspector, and another officer has the gymnasium under his control. All vacancies for teachers are thrown open to public competition, and it is only after examination that they are confirmed in their appointments by a government order. To every gymnasium are in general attached a rector, a religious teacher, four professors of grammar, and two of humanity, (*d' umanità*.) To limit the number of those who crowd into the learned professions, it has of late years been prescribed that no pupil shall be received at a gymnasium before his tenth or after his fourteenth year. From this regulation, however, constant exceptions are made, as it has been found that a rigid enforcement would have the effect of excluding the cleverest and most industrious children.

Corporal punishments have every where been abolished. On Sundays all the pupils of a gymnasium attend church. Not more than 80 pupils must be included in the same class. Thursday is always a holiday. On each of the other five days there are only four school hours. The holidays, in addition to those on occasion of the church festivals, last from the 9th of September to the 1st of November.

The regular course of study in each gymnasium last six years, during which the pupil has to pass through four classes of grammar and two of humanity. In the first grammatical class are taught: Italian, the rudiments of Latin, arithmetic, geography, and religion. In the second class, the same course is continued, but Roman antiquity, and the geography and history of the Austrian monarchy, are added. In the third grammatical class, Greek is added; and in the fourth, Latin

* In 1834, there were in the Venetian part of the kingdom 1,435 schools, with 81,372 pupils, and 1,676 male and female teachers.

prosody. In the first humanity class are taught rhetoric, poetry, algebra, geography, history, and religion; in the second, the same subjects continue to employ the pupil. A pupil who does not intend to study medicine, or to go into the church, may obtain a dispensation from Greek.

In every branch of study, the school-books are prescribed by the higher authorities. Latin and Greek are taught exclusively through the medium of anthologies and selections, in which there are difficult extracts intended for the more advanced pupils.

A new law was promulgated in 1838 on the subject of technical or commercial schools. These are intended to prepare the future trader and mechanic, and are therefore to give a practical direction to their studies, always keeping in view the interests of the Austrian monarchy and those of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The towns in which these schools are established must furnish a suitable building and all the requisite furniture, &c.; the rest of the charge is defrayed by government. Each teacher gives from 4 to 15 lessons weekly, and their salaries vary from 400 to 800 florins. Each school is divided into three classes, into the junior of which a boy may pass from the grammatical first class of a gymnasium. In the first class of a technical school, (the first class always means the lowest,) the pupil is *obliged* to attend weekly 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian grammar, 3 of geography, 4 of mathematics, 3 of zoology, 6 of drawing, 4 of writing, in all 25 lessons, of an hour each; in addition to these, there are 2 lessons of German, and 2 of French, the attendance on which is optional. In the second class, botany is substituted for zoology. In the third class are given 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian style, 7 of natural philosophy, 3 of mineralogy, in all 15 obligatory lessons. In addition to these, there are 5 lessons of chemistry, 5 of commercial science, 5 of book-keeping, and 3 of commercial correspondence. Of these the pupil may choose whether he will attend the lessons of chemistry and one of the other three subjects, or whether he will attend the last three without chemistry.

There is also a special school for

Veterinary surgery, with 5 teachers, 41 pupils, and an expenditure of 71,643 lire.

Chemistry, with 3 teachers, 15 pupils, and an expenditure of 6,750 lire.

Midwives, with 3 teachers, 71 pupils, and an expenditure of 24,432 lire.

This last institution is in connection with the lying-in and foundling hospitals.

For future theologians, on leaving the elementary schools, distinct institutions are provided in the episcopal seminaries, of which there is one attached to every see. The largest, at Milan, in 1837, contained 403 pupils; the smallest, at Crema, only 10. In these the teachers are appointed by the bishop, but satisfactory proof of their capacity must be given to the temporal authorities.

Mr. Von Raumer adds the following remarks:

In the first place, the elementary instruction is so simple, and the natural progress so evident, that there appears in this respect, to be no very important difference between the German system and that of Lombardy. The only thing to be wished for is, that the number of good teachers may increase in proportion to the number of pupils. To the credit of the clergy be it said that, in addition to the regular hours of religious instruction, they sometimes take charge of one or two other branches, a course perfectly consistent with the duties of their profession.

Secondly—the limited number of school-hours at the gymnasiums is explained by the work which the children are expected to do at home, and the incompatibility of an Italian temperament with long confinement. The work to be done at home is, however, much less considerable than at a public school in Germany; and the vivacity of the Italian temperament might just as reasonably be adduced as a motive for subjecting to a more strict and continuous discipline. Besides, in other parts of Italy, we shall see that the number of school-hours is greater. On other grounds, therefore, must be decided the question, whether an increase in the number of lessons be desirable or not; and also, whether it would not be better to give two half-holidays in the week, as with us, than to sacrifice one whole day out of six, as is done in Lombardy.

Thirdly—I have to observe that under the word grammar is included not only Latin, but every instruction in the native language. Greek is thrown too much

into the back-ground; and, however laudable it may be to attend to the geography and history of Austria, it may be much doubted whether it be well judged to assign to them so marked a precedence before every other kind of historical instruction.

Fourthly—the reading nothing but fragmentary collections is defended on the ground that it is expedient to make a pupil acquainted with a variety of authors, and with the different kinds of Latin and Greek. It must be owned that, in our German schools, where a contrary system prevails, many a young scholar becomes acquainted with all the delicacies of one author, without being able even to construe another, with whose particular style he happens not to be acquainted. It would perhaps be better to combine the two systems, and not to make the acquirement of dead languages the main object, where the student is in point of fact intended for some more active pursuit; otherwise, the student, instead of having his character strengthened and his judgment improved by the full impression of ancient greatness, is likely to conceive a disgust of all classical studies, and never to take a Greek or Roman into his hand again, when once he has left school. Who will deny that such is with us the rule, and the contrary the exception?

Fifthly—It may be doubted, perhaps, whether it be advisable to draw the future theologian, like other students, into the full current of temporal affairs; and it is just as doubtful whether it is advisable to detach him completely from the world, and yet require him, when he comes to mingle in it, to understand, to estimate, and to guide it.

Sixthly—Whether our public schools in Germany are not more efficient, and whether they do not prepare the student better for the university than those of Lombardy are questions that do not admit of a doubt. On that very account, however, the lyceum and the course of philosophy have been established.

Seventhly—to a most important point, namely, that in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom all public instruction, whether in the elementary schools, or at a gymnasium, a lyceum, or a university, is *altogether gratuitous*. I am aware of the motives by which the demand of payment is usually justified; nor do I require to be told that what is given away rarely fails to be undervalued; nevertheless, there is something gratifying in the idea of education without any cost to the parents: much anxiety is thus prevented, as well as many little selfish manoeuvres.

The following notice is given of the lyceums and universities.

It is generally thought that the gymnasium affords but an insufficient preparation for the study of divinity, law, or medicine, and even for those who, without purposing to devote themselves to either of those professions, intend to compete for appointments to certain public offices. For such students, therefore, a two years' course is opened at the lyceum, or in the philosophical faculty of a university. Before completing this course, a student can not be entered for either of the three other faculties. In Prussia we have no corresponding regulation. The subjects here treated of at the lyceums are with us either attended to at the public school, or may be studied at the university simultaneously with divinity, jurisprudence, or medicine. Here no student can enter a lyceum without a certificate of maturity from the gymnasium; nor can he be entered for either of the three faculties, without a certificate to show that he has passed through the intermediate two years' course, which is never curtailed, though, with respect to some of the lectures, it is left to the option of the students to attend them or not, as they please. The discipline under which they are kept is tolerably strict. They must not go to a theater, ball, or any place of public amusement, without express permission, nor are circulating libraries allowed to lend them novels or the *Conversations-Lexicon*. On Sundays they must go to church, and six times a year they must confess and receive the communion. There are in Lombardy seven imperial lyceums, one civic at Lodi, and eight episcopal, connected with the seminaries. They are attended by 1,600 students. The imperial lyceums cost the government about 137,000 lire annually.

In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom there are two universities, those of Padua and Pavia, where the course of study is under the control of the directors of the several faculties, who in their turn are responsible to the governor of the province. The directors propose candidates to fill up vacancies, suggest modifications in the

course of study, see that the professors arrange their lectures in a suitable manner, that they do not wander away from their subjects, and that they lead a moral life; the directors are also to examine class-books and academical discourses, to be frequently present at the lectures, to take part in the deliberations of the senate, to call the faculties together, and to superintend the election of a dean.

These directors, who are not professors, are said to have all the real power in their hands, the rector being a representative without influence, and the functions of the dean being confined to the care of some matters of a purely scientific character. Every thing belonging to discipline and the maintenance of order is also in the hands of the directors.

An ordinance relating to the university of Padua, dated the 8th of April, 1825, declares that institution to be immediately under the *gubernium*. A general assembly includes not only the directors, deans, and professors, but likewise all doctors who have graduated at Padua, and reside in the city. The rector is elected annually from the different faculties in succession, and not only the professors but also each of the doctors just mentioned has a voice in the election, and is himself eligible to the dignity. The senate selects three candidates from the faculty next in succession, after which a majority of votes determines the election, subject to the confirmation of the government. The rector calls the senate together twice a year, when a report is read of all that has been done by him during the interval. His power, however, in this respect, is greatly cramped, especially by means of the directors. The dean must be a doctor of the faculty to which he belongs, but, in that of law or medicine, must not himself be a professor. In the other faculties, professors are eligible to the dignity of dean. The dean is to keep an historical chronicle of every thing relating to the faculty. All lectures are gratuitous, with the exception that twelve lire are paid by the higher order of nobles on entering their names, nine by the inferior nobles, six by a wealthy citizen, and three by any other student.

With respect to the relation between doctors and professors, the law says: the faculties are considered as academical corporations, distinct (*separati*) from the professors. Although the doctors, therefore, do not belong to the body of instructors, they have a central point of union, to consult together, and place their suggestions before the authorities. They likewise serve the state, as an assembly of well-informed men, whose opinion may be consulted and listened to.

The university of Padua has the four customary faculties. The senate consists of the following persons: the rector, four directors, four deans, and four ancients among the professors. There are six ordinary professors of divinity, eight of law, twelve of medicine, nine of the philosophical sciences, besides a few deputies and assistants, but not, as with us, a set of extraordinary professors and private tutors. The general assembly, including the doctors, consists of twenty-four theologians, fifty-seven jurists, twenty-four physicians, and thirty philosophers.

The university course, for divinity in law, lasts four years; for medicine and surgery, five; and for those who study surgery only, three or four years. Every half-year the students are examined. At the end of two years they obtain the dignity of bachelor, and at the end of three, that of a licentiate. The dignity of doctor is not conferred before the end of the fourth year, nor till after a general examination. The candidate must publicly defend a Latin thesis, but no mention is made of any essay required to be printed.

The university of Pavia has no theological faculty, but in every other respect the same constitution as that of Padua. There are at present thirty-eight professors, three adjuncts, and eleven assessors. Of these eleven professors and two adjuncts belong to the philosophical faculty; four professors and one assessor to the mathematical division of the faculty; eight professors and one adjunct to the legal; and fifteen professors and ten assessors to the medical faculty.

The mathematical division of the philosophical faculty is chiefly intended for the education of land-surveyors and engineers. A student can enter it on completing his course of philosophy.

I will only add a few brief remarks as when treating of schools, by way of instituting some comparison between the German and Italian universities.

In the first place, the lyceum and the course of philosophy owe their institution evidently to a consciousness that a blank existed between the degree of information acquired at a gymnasium and that necessary for prosecuting the study of either of

the other three faculties; but here a doubt suggests itself, whether it would not be simpler, more economical, and more beneficial, to assign to the gymnasium a part of the instruction afforded by the lyceum, and the remainder to the university itself. I scarcely think it well-judged to compress all these subjects into the space of two years, and then to confine the student entirely to matters connected with his intended profession, without allowing him the relief of variety. Would it not be better to permit the young men, as is done at our German universities, to attend philosophical and historical lectures, simultaneously with those on theology, medicine or law? It is true that, owing to the greater liberty allowed to our students, they frequently absent themselves from all lectures but those connected with the pursuit on which their future livelihood is to depend. In such cases it is not to be denied that the stricter regulations of Italy may be preferable.

The director of a faculty is an officer wholly unknown with us, and the object of his appointment is evidently the maintenance of a stricter discipline. The enlargement of the faculty by the admission of resident doctors is another arrangement unknown in Germany. It may have the effect of avoiding much partiality and exclusiveness; but it may be questioned whether, on the other hand, it does not tend to weaken the corporation.

Many objections might be made to the number and succession of the lectures, and certainly our better universities in Germany present greater variety and more completeness. The Italians, on the other hand, might argue, that this variety is carried much too far with us, breaking up the course of study into a multitude of fragments, in a manner quite unsuitable to the student's advancement.

A new law was promulgated on the 6th of September, 1838, for the foundation or restoration of two academies of arts and sciences at Venice and Milan, and measures are now in progress to effect the realization of this plan. Each academy is to comprise three classes: real members, honorary members, and correspondents. The first are to receive salaries of 1,200 lire, and the further assistance to be afforded has, for the present, been fixed at 45,000 lire.

II. SARDINIA.

The system of public education embraces, 1. elementary schools in each commune, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction is given. 2. Upper schools in the large towns under the direction of the clergy. 3. Four universities. 4. Special schools of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of civil engineering, &c. We have no recent statistics respecting these schools. The following notice of higher instruction is taken from the *Annuarie des deux Mondes*, for 1851.

Public instruction under the regime of the old monarchy was not without its fame. The university of Turin, founded so long ago as the 15th century, was fully organized by the middle of the 16th, and gradually became the center for students from all northern Italy. It owes its rapid progress much to the careful solicitude of Victor Amadeus II. In 1720, it had but 800 students; in 1730, two thousand. This university was the focus of intellectual activity in Piedmont, the other institutions for instruction having been but slowly developed.

The system of exclusive privileges, the varying laws, the influence of a hierarchy which mainly governed the elementary schools, all the assemblage of feudal and ecclesiastical institutions embracing government and society, naturally caused great confusion in the organic principles of instruction.

A serious and fundamental reform was attempted in 1847 by the royal decrees of 30th November. The old administration of the university was abolished, and a special ministry of public instruction created. The formation of a high council to assist the minister completed on the 27th December, following this effort of the State to centralize the system by placing it under uniform and stricter supervision. But the present organization only dates from the law of 4th October, 1848, which, inspired by the recent revolution in the principles of political legislation, imprinted upon the institutions for public instruction, of every grade, a new type. The duties of the ministry and of the various councils destined to act under its orders were fixed by this law. All the universities, secondary and elementary

schools of the kingdom, are placed under the control of the minister of public instruction. Schools for the deaf and dumb, those of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of veterinary medicine, forests, civil engineering, of the marine and a few other special schools, are the only exceptions to the rule laid down by this new law. Subsequent legislation has developed these principles. The high council consists of nine regular members appointed for life, and five transient whose term of service is three years. Both classes are chosen by the king among professors either retired or in service, of the various faculties of the kingdom, excepting two of the regular councillors who must be selected among the *savans* or distinguished literary men. Each university, and each faculty, is directed by a council. In each university exists a permanent board, chosen out of its council, charged with direction and supervision of the institutions for secondary instruction. Every college that has a professorship of philosophy has also its council. Elementary instruction is directed by one general council for the whole kingdom whose authority is in the island of Sardinia delegated to the university councils, aided by a board of elementary instruction in each province.

In all the provinces, the State is represented by a sort of rector who is entitled *regio proeditor*. But the movement of this system is derived from the minister and his high council. The resemblance of this to the former high council of the universities in France is obvious. The Piedmontese council prepares and examines projects of laws and regulations relating to public instruction, it arranges a general plan for studies, it examines and approaches the outlines of the courses of study presented to it by the university boards, and also the class-books. The reports of inspectors of schools and scientific institutions, those of the university boards and of the provincial councils presiding over elementary instruction, are also submitted to examination by the high council. Among the most important duties of this body, we may number the obligation of presenting to the minister, once in three years, a general report upon the condition of instruction in the kingdom, and among its most important powers, that of deciding upon questions of discipline, and upon charges preferred against professors of universities and secondary schools, and elementary inspectors, the accused party to be heard.

There are in the kingdom four universities, for Piedmont one at Turin, and one at Genoa; for the island of Sardinia two others, one at Cagliari, the other at Sassari. These universities confer the higher academic degrees. The university schools of Chamberi and Nice, dependencies of the Turin university, have professorships of law and medicine, and students of medicine can pass two years of the required course in them. Each royal college established at an episcopal see, has a faculty of theology for instruction of youth designed for the priesthood. Nearly all the chief provincial towns have a professorship of civil law for those intended to be notaries or advocates.

University instruction is divided into five faculties, theology, law, medicine and surgery, belles-lettres and philosophy, physical and mathematical science. These are subdivided nearly as in the French plan. The most important differences are that of the study of canon law, a branch of the law faculty, and that of the somewhat confused organization of teaching in philosophy. A distinction is made between rational and positive philosophy. The course of positive philosophy which occupies three years includes but one year of philosophy properly so called, moral; the other three are devoted to various branches of exact sciences. Embraces with geometry, general chemistry, mineralogy, zoology and physics, *ancient literature and modern Italian*.

Mr. Von Raumer, in his "Italy and the Italians," remarks:

A collection of laws for the regulation of schools was printed in 1834. According to these, the instruction given in the elementary schools is gratuitous. The lessons begin and end with prayer. The gymnasiums (*collegi*) are divided into six classes: three junior, one of grammar, one of humanity, and one of rhetoric. The branches of instruction and class-books are prescribed. Besides the ordinary teachers, every gymnasium has a prefect, who is often changed, and whose duty it is to enforce discipline among teachers and scholars, and a spiritual director. Under the last named, the following exercises occur daily. Every morning; 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. the hymn, *Veni creator*;

3. according to the season, the Ambrosian hymn, and other extracts from the *Ufficio della beata Vergine*; 4. mass; 5. hymn of the litanies of the holy virgin; 6. spiritual instruction; 7. the psalm *Laudate Dominum*, and a prayer for the king. In the afternoon: 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. hymn and prayer; 3. three quarters of an hour explanation of the catechism. The school lasts $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the forenoon, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the afternoon. Thursday is a whole holiday. Where the funds of the school are insufficient, a boy in the three junior classes pays 15 francs a year, and in the upper classes, 20 francs, besides 8 or 12 francs on being promoted from one class to another. The salaries of the teachers are paid partly by the government and partly by the towns, and amount to from 750 to 1,200 lire per annum, with some trifling addition in case of long service. The retiring pensions also depend on the period of service, but the highest pension never exceeds the lowest salary. Where the ability is the same, clergymen are always to be preferred. No teacher must cause any thing to be printed either in or out of the kingdom without submitting his manuscript first to the ordinary censorship, and to the censorship of the *rimforma*. The *magistrato di riforma* is a kind of ministry of public instruction, and has a *consiglio di riforma* under it in every province. Among its other duties, occurs that of prescribing what books shall be used in instruction, although, in the episcopal seminaries, and some others under the guidance of ecclesiastical orders, such as the Jesuits, the Barnabites, &c., it has little influence.

The scholars of the gymnasia are not allowed to read any books which have not been either given or furnished by the prefect. They are forbidden to swim, to frequent theaters, balls, coffee or gaming houses; to perform in private plays, and the like; and it is the business of the police to see these prohibitions attended to.

There is in Turin one head university, with four faculties; and there are secondary universities (*università secondarie*) in Chamberi, Asti, Mondovì, Nizza, Novara, Saluzzo, and Vercelli, either for the study of medicine alone, or for medicine and jurisprudence together. The universities have no legal right to make proposals for the appointment to vacant places, and there is consequently no canvassing. This is by some regarded as an advantage, though it is stated on the other hand that hasty and partial nominations are more frequent on this system.

There are three academical degrees, those of bachelor, licentiate, and laureate; and the holidays are on the whole more frequent than with us.

The students are not only under strict scientific superintendence, but also under the close *surveillance* of the police. No student is allowed to choose his dwelling or leave it without permission of the prefect, who often appoints the place where he is to lodge and board.

Whoever wishes to receive students into his house must undertake the responsibility for their observance of the laws which regulate their going to mass and confession, fasting, and even their clothing and their beards. Neglect of these rules is punished by exclusion from the examinations, or from the university itself.

With respect to the great abundance of devotional exercises, I may be permitted to remark that, though the reference to piety and devotion, as to that which should mingle in all sciences and in every action of our lives, be undoubtedly praiseworthy, and for Catholics it is right to prefer Thomas à Kempis to Ovid as a school-book, I can not help doubting if the constant repetition of these prescribed forms be really advisable. Without considering that many must regard them as mere loss of time, it would be scarcely possible to avoid one of two errors—either that of an over-estimation of mere external observances, and a consequent disregard of true inward holiness, or an indifference and disgust easily excited in young minds, when the highest and holiest subjects become matters of daily and mechanical routine.

In the second place, that the school instruction should devolve wholly on Catholic clergymen may have one advantage in an economical point of view, since, being without families, they are better able to maintain themselves on a small income; but it can scarcely escape the objection of bestowing only of one-aided education, or avoid the danger of having many branches of instruction under the superintendence of those who are themselves little instructed; unless ecclesiastics should be obliged to devote themselves to studies foreign to their vocation.

The existence of a lurking wish to extend and strengthen by this means the power and dominion of the church is the more evident, as establishments for education are daily arising, which are entirely withdrawn from temporal influence. I repeat that such a system as this appears to me quite as one-sided and disadvantageous as the opposite one.

In the third place, what is called the philosophical course, is here, still less than in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, such as to afford any compensation for the meagerness of the education afforded at the gymnasium. How, for instance, can a single lesson or lecture a week in Greek grammar make amends for many years' academical study of that difficult language, or afford any preparation for the studies of the university, in themselves meagre enough? Besides, there is merely a choice offered to the quasi-student, whether he will learn Greek or history. Should he prefer history, he must renounce Greek altogether.

Fourthly, much might be said against the subordinate universities above-mentioned. They were established at a time when the inquiet dispositions of the Turin students had turned towards politics, and occasioned much trouble to the government, which endeavored to weaken them by scattering them thus over the country. It may be doubted, nevertheless, whether this lasting resource against a merely temporary evil has proved really effectual.

It is at all events likely that the number of ignorant students has been thereby increased, and the instruction deteriorated from the diminution of the number of learned professors. The German universities sometimes exhibit the dangers of too much liberty, those of this country the evils of too much restraint. The time must come in a young man's life when even paternal authority must cease—much more, then, the discipline of a school.

III. THE GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY.

The means of education provided by the central government, municipal authorities, or charitable endowment are:—1. infant schools, of which, in 1850, there were 22, numbering over 2,000 children. 2. Elementary schools, of which there is at least one supported by the commune, and a number of schools of mutual instruction supported by voluntary associations. In these schools, there is no charge for tuition. 3. Schools for secondary education embracing 4 colleges for nobles, 16 gymnasiums or classical schools, 16 seminaries or boarding schools for girls, called *conservatori*. The seminary at Florence, has 600 boarders. In all of these schools there are over 5,000 students. 4. Three universities, viz.: at Pisa, (founded in 1138,) with 580 students; at Siena, (founded in 1331,) with 300 students; and at Florence, (called the academy, and founded in 1428,) with 230 students.

Mr. Von Raumer, remarks: "In so highly polished a land as Tuscany, the value of education and instruction has by no means escaped the attention of the government and of individuals; yet much still remains to be done, and schools and universities appear to be very scanty in comparison with the number and revenues of the clergy and especially of the monks. Indeed, the Italians do not acquire knowledge by means of their universities, but in spite of them; and how can governments be surprised if many, both old and young, have either no ideas at all, or false ones, of passing events, of social relations, states, constitutions, and governments, since every genuine avenue to science and experience is cut off from them by the perverse one-sidedness and silly apprehension of their rulers!"

IV. STATES OF THE CHURCH.

The Roman or Papal States, or States of the Church, are divided into 21 provinces, of which those lying west of the Apennines are styled *Legations*, while that of Rome, bears the name of *Comarca*. This territory was, at various times—most of it from 755 to 1278, donated to the Holy See. The general supervision of all the educational institutions is committed to a Commissioner of Studies, while the local management of the elementary schools is assigned to a committee, of which the parish priest is one. The means of elementary education are very generally provided either by parish schools, or by schools conducted by various religious orders. Higher education is dispensed by seven universities, several of which are among the oldest in the world.

The institutions for elementary education in the city of Rome, are:

1. Orphan Asylums. Of these there are a large number richly endowed and well regulated, of which some are for boys and others for girls. The San Michael is supported by the government, and furnishes instruction, not only in the elementary studies, but in various trades, to over 400 orphans of both sexes. In this class of institutions there are about 2,000 boys and girls.

2. Parish schools for poor children—established by the rector of the parish, assisted by the commission of charitable subsidies. There were in 1847, eleven of these schools, with about 1,000 scholars, between the ages of five and twelve years.

3. Schools conducted by religious orders, devoted by their vows to teaching.

- i. Schools conducted by a religious order established by Calasanzio, a native of Spain, who opened a free school in Rome, in 1597, which at one time numbered over 1,000 poor children in one of the poorest districts of the city. He died at the advanced age of ninety-two years, after his "Congregation to the Poor" had been erected into a religious order, by the pope, the members taking, in addition to the vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, the vow of instruction. The members are called *Padri Scolapi*, and the schools *Scolapi*, (contracted from *schole pie*,) or pious schools, of which there are now three, with over 1,000 pupils.

- ii. Schools of the Fathers of the Christian Doctrine or teaching. This religious congregation, devoted to teaching, is composed of a fraternity established by Cesare de Bees in 1592, (*Congregazione degli Agalisti*,) and another founded by two priests in 1559. They have two houses, and educate about 700 pupils.

- iii. Schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, a fraternity connected with the order of teachers established by De Lasalle in 1684, in France, and transferred to Rome in 1702. As they profess to teach only the elementary studies, they are sometimes called the *Ignorantelli*. They have three houses, and instruct about 1,200 children, without fee or reward.

In these schools, much time is given to religious instruction and ob-

servances, and the methods which were once in advance of other schools, are now antiquated and formal, to which these fraternities adhere with the tenacity of religious faith.

4. Elementary schools for the gratuitous instruction of poor girls. In one of these, the *conservatori*, sixty girls are boarded, lodged, and instructed; and as soon as they are of suitable age, are taught to spin, weave, make gloves, and other profitable handicrafts.

5. Regional or district schools. Rome is divided into wards, or districts, in which are maintained, partly at the expense of the government, and partly by a small charge on the parents, 246 district or regional schools, (*scholae regionarie*), with about 5,000 children. These schools are of three grades—*first*, those which receive boys and girls under five years; *second*, those which receive only girls, in which they are taught, besides the elementary studies, to sew, knit, and embroider; *third*, those which receive only boys over five years. In a few of the two last grades of schools, the course of studies is extended so as to embrace the studies of our public high schools.

6. Schools established by individuals and associations—such as the school of Prince Massieno in one of the poorest districts of Rome—the evening schools established by Casaglio, an engraver in wood, in 1816, and extended by others.

These schools belong to the primary grade, and are intended mainly for the poorer classes.

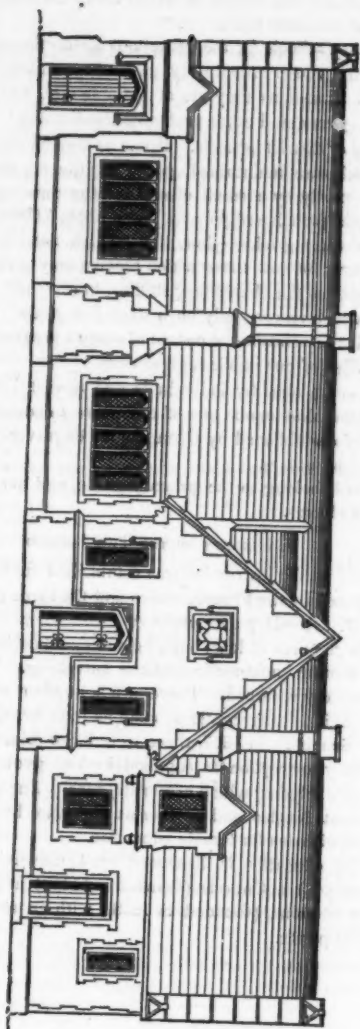
V. KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

A system of public instruction was established for this kingdom during its occupancy by the French, embracing the three grades of schools: 1. primary; 2. secondary; 3. superior.

1. The law requires at least one elementary school in every commune, for reading, writing, arithmetic, and the catechism. This provision is not very generally enforced. There are a number of primary schools taught by religious congregations, such as the Christian Brothers, and the Fathers Scolapi. In 1847, there were 2,500 primary schools.

2. Secondary instruction is supplied by 780 *gymnasias*, or classical schools, besides 4 lycea, which confer degrees. There is a large seminary for girls at Naples, and another at Palermo, besides a number of conventual seminaries for female education.

3. Superior education is dispensed by 4 universities:—at Naples, (founded in 1224;) at Catania, (founded in 1445;) at Palermo, (founded in 1447;) at Messina, (founded in 1838,) with an average attendance of about 2,300 pupils.



X. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

MODEL PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE, IN BOSTON.

The following description of the May Primary School-house, in Boston, taken from the Annual Report for 1864, was prepared by Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools:—

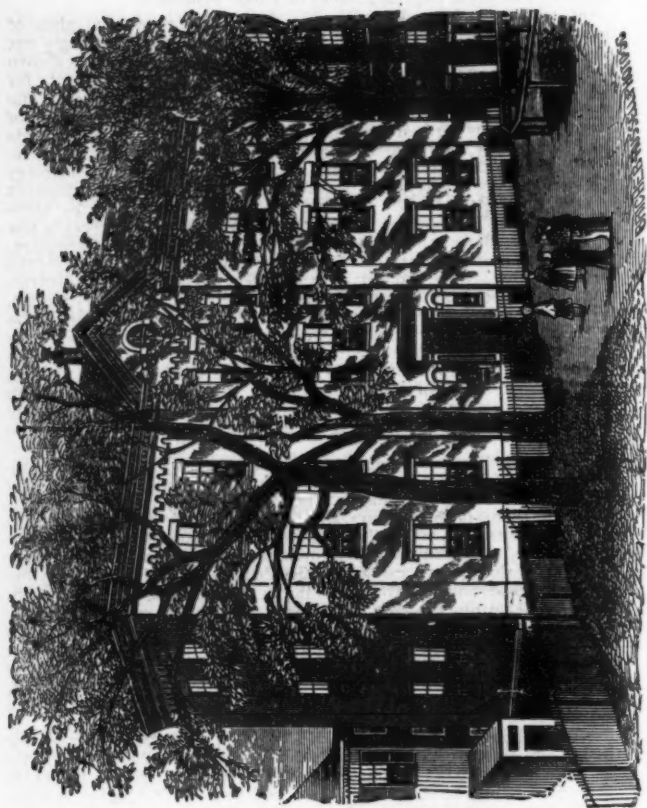
The accompanying cuts represent perspective views and plans of the two Primary School-houses which illustrate most strikingly our progress in this department of school architecture. Here are shown in contrast the first and poorest building ever erected in this city for the accommodation of a Primary School, and the latest and best. The former was built in 1831, thirteen years after the establishment of Primary Schools here, and when the whole number of schools of this grade was sixty, the registered number of pupils being 3,700. The whole cost of this edifice was \$468. It is still occupied by a Primary School, but it will probably be vacated at the close of the present school year. It is located about a mile and a half west of the State House, on the Milldam road [a continuation of Beacon Street], a few rods beyond the corner of Parker Street. It is a wooden structure, perched up on piles four or five feet above the high-water mark of the tide millpond. It is about twenty-five feet square, and two stories high, the upper room having been occupied as a missionary chapel, by the Old South Society. It has recently been furnished with the modern school chairs and desks, but the original furniture was of the most primitive description, consisting simply of long forms without backs. There were no desks or benches for writing, and no boxes, or contrivances of any kind, for keeping the books. There was no need of any provision for the safe-keeping of slates, for in the early days of this building a slate in a Primary School was a rare phenomenon.

From this humble beginning, we have gradually advanced by successive steps of progress, which are fully illustrated by buildings now standing, till we have at length reached, as the result of the experiments of the past thirty years, that combination of improvements in school architecture which is exhibited in the new building already referred to,—a building which combines so many excellences as to deserve, perhaps, to be called a model Primary School-house. By far the most important improvements in our Primary School-houses have been made within the past ten years. Indeed it is only since 1860, that we have been working with a clear and definite purpose in the erection of buildings for our Primary Schools. Previous to this time there was no recognized ideal standard, or model plan, to which the buildings were made to conform as far as circumstances would permit, and each structure represented the idea of the Committee which happened to be in power at the time of its erection.

And, although such a standard has been kept constantly in view for four years past, owing to the difficulty of securing adequate lots, we have only now succeeded in coming fully up to its requirements, in the edifice which has recently been completed on Washington Square.

The plan which has at length been substantially carried out in this building, was the result of a movement inaugurated by the Committee on Public Instruction (of the City Council), under the intelligent lead of Thomas C. Amory, Jr., Esq., Chairman on the part of the Board of Aldermen, and J. Putnam Bradlee, Esq., President of the Common Council.

At the request of this Committee, early in the year 1860, the Superintendent of Schools, in conjunction with G. J. F. Bryant, Architect, prepared several model plans of Primary School-houses, with accom-



MAY PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE, WASHINGTON SQUARE, 1864.

PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE ON THE MILL-DAM ROAD, 1831.



panying mechanical and architectural descriptions, adapted to our peculiar organization of Primary Schools, and embodying the recent improvements in school architecture. In submitting his report on the subject to the above-named Committee, the Superintendent presented the following outline and plan of a model Primary School-room, adapted to our organization, to which the architect should endeavor to approximate as nearly as possible in designing Primary School Buildings:—

"Fifty-six being the number of pupils to be accommodated, the arrangement of the desks for this number is the next thing to be done. The best mode of disposing of them seems to be to make seven rows with eight in a row. Arranged in this way, they will occupy a space in the form of a rectangle, of which the longest side will be parallel with the teacher's platform. Each desk is one foot and a half long. The centre aisle should be two feet wide, and each of the others sixteen inches. A chair and desk together require a little more than two feet from front to back. Fifty-six desks and chairs, with the above dimensions and arrangements, would occupy a rectangle twenty-two feet by fifteen. In the rear, and on the sides of the space appropriated to seating, there should be a space not less than three feet wide. The teacher's platform should be at least five feet wide, and the area between the scholars' desks and the platform should be at least as wide. These measures will require a room twenty-eight feet square in the clear. The height should be twelve feet in the clear. This size gives one hundred and sixty-eight cubic feet of air to each child, which would be sufficient to last thirty-nine minutes without a fresh supply. The plan entitled 'Model Primary School-room,' herewith submitted, represents the arrangements above described.

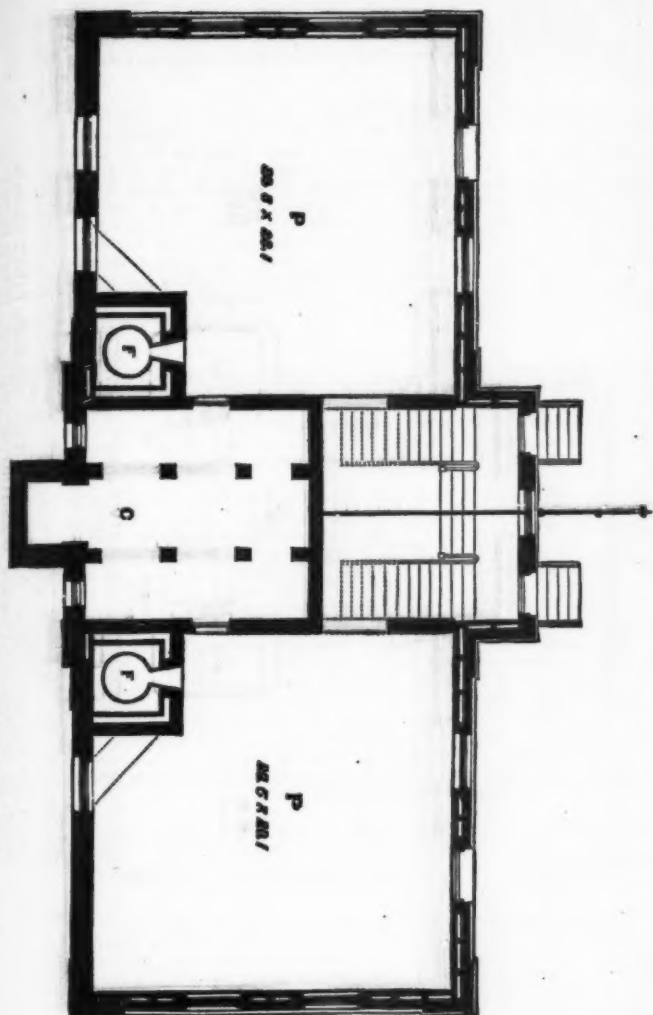
An inspection of this plan will show that provision is made for blackboards in the rear and in front of the pupils, and for light on both sides. When practicable, the light should be admitted on the left side of the pupils as they sit, in preference to the right side. If light can be admitted only on one side of the room, the pupils should be seated with their backs towards it. This room is planned on the supposition that architectural considerations will make it necessary to admit the light on two opposite sides of the room, rather than on two adjacent sides. If the light is admitted on opposite sides, as in this plan, the seating should be so arranged that the blank walls may be in front and rear, while the windows are on the right and left of the pupils as they sit.

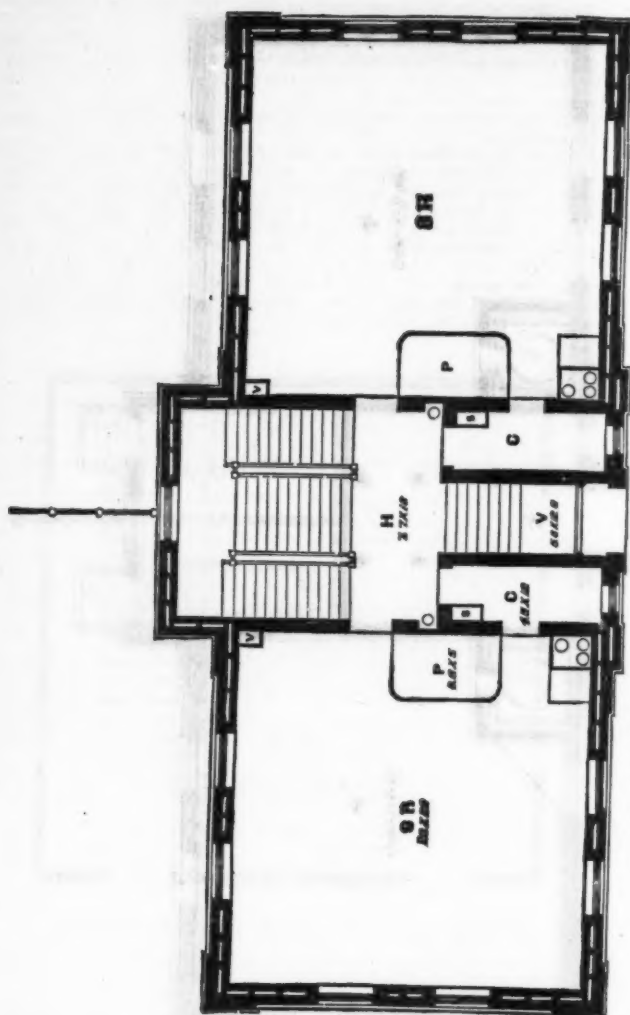
Whatever may be the size of rooms in the building, each school-room should have attached to it a clothes closet. It is desirable that this closet should be accessible both from the entry and school-room. This closet should be from four to five feet in width, and about fifteen feet in length, and lighted by a window."

Such, in brief, was the origin of the general plan or system adopted by the City Council as a guide in the construction of Primary School-houses, and in accordance with which this building was designed by the accomplished architect, Nathaniel J. Bradlee, Esq.

"The new school-house on Washington Square is situated on a lot measuring 84 feet front, 55 feet 2½ inches on the west side, 126 feet 8½ inches on the rear, and 73 feet 3 inches on the east side, the building itself covering a space 77 feet 3 inches front by 31 feet 9 inches deep, with a projection in the rear 5 feet by 13 feet 6 inches, which is made so as to give sufficient depth for the stairway and clothes room. The façade is divided into three sections, the centre being 23 feet wide projecting 12 inches, and forming a regular pediment at the roof. There is a granite underpinning around the building averaging

PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE ON WASHINGTON SQUARE, BASEMENT.





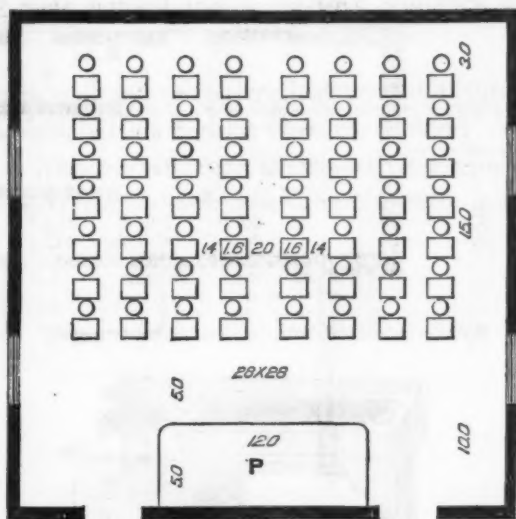
PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE ON WASHINGTON SQUARE, FIRST FLOOR.

5 feet high in front, and 2 feet on the sides and rear; all above is of face brick with freestone trimmings, the whole being finished with a heavy cornice.

The first story windows have moulded freestone caps; all the others are plain.

The foundation stones, which are laid 3 feet 6 inches below the cellar bottom, are 1 foot 6 inches thick by 3 feet wide; on top of these the walls are carried up 20 inches thick in cement to the top of the floor, and above first floor the walls are vaulted with an air space of two inches, the outside wall being 12 inches thick and the inside one 4 inches thick.

The inside partition walls are also of brick, and the plastering is put directly on the brickwork, so as to prevent any danger of fire communicating from one story to another. The basement is divided into two play-rooms, each 28 feet 1 inch by 28 feet 5 inches, hall 15 feet by 16 feet 6 inches, fuel cellar 16 feet 6 inches by 17 feet, and two furnaces 8 feet square each. The first, second, and third stories, respectively, are divided into two school-rooms each 28 feet square; two clothes rooms, each 4 feet 6 inches by 12 feet, hall 16 feet by 20 feet 6 inches, including a landing 7 feet 7 inches by 16 feet; also a vestibule 5 feet 6 inches by 10 feet.



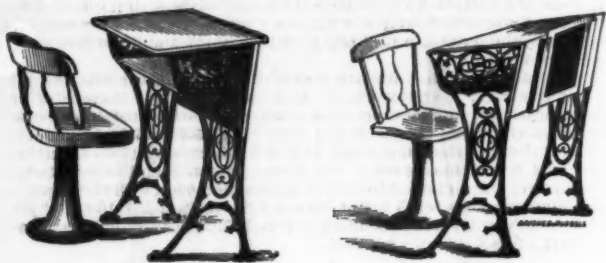
MODEL PRIMARY SCHOOL-ROOM, IN BOSTON.

Each clothes closet is supplied with water over an iron enamelled sink.

All the school-rooms, entries, and closets are sheathed 5 feet high, so as to protect the plastering."

In the second and third stories, the apartments corresponding to the vestibule [V] as represented in the cut of the first floor, are designed for teachers' dressing-rooms.

The furniture for pupils and teachers is of the best description, and was manufactured at the well-known establishment of Joseph L. Ross, Esq., in this city. The style is exhibited in the accompanying cuts.



UNION PORTABLE PRIMARY SCHOOL SINGLE DESK AND CHAIR.

This style of Desk and Chair, with the Iron Slate Racks attached, for the Slates, is adopted and in universal use in the Boston Primary Schools. The Slates and Racks furnished with the Desks when desired.

They are graded of three different heights, Nos. 5, 6, and 7.

No. 5. Desk and Chair, for pupils from 6 to 8 years of age.

" 6.	do.	do.	5 to 6	do.
" 7.	do.	do.	4 to 5	do.

Length of desk, 1 foot 6 inches.

Width of No. 5 desk, 11 inches.

do. " 6 do. 10 "

do. " 7 do. 9 "

Space required for chair, between desks, 14 inches.



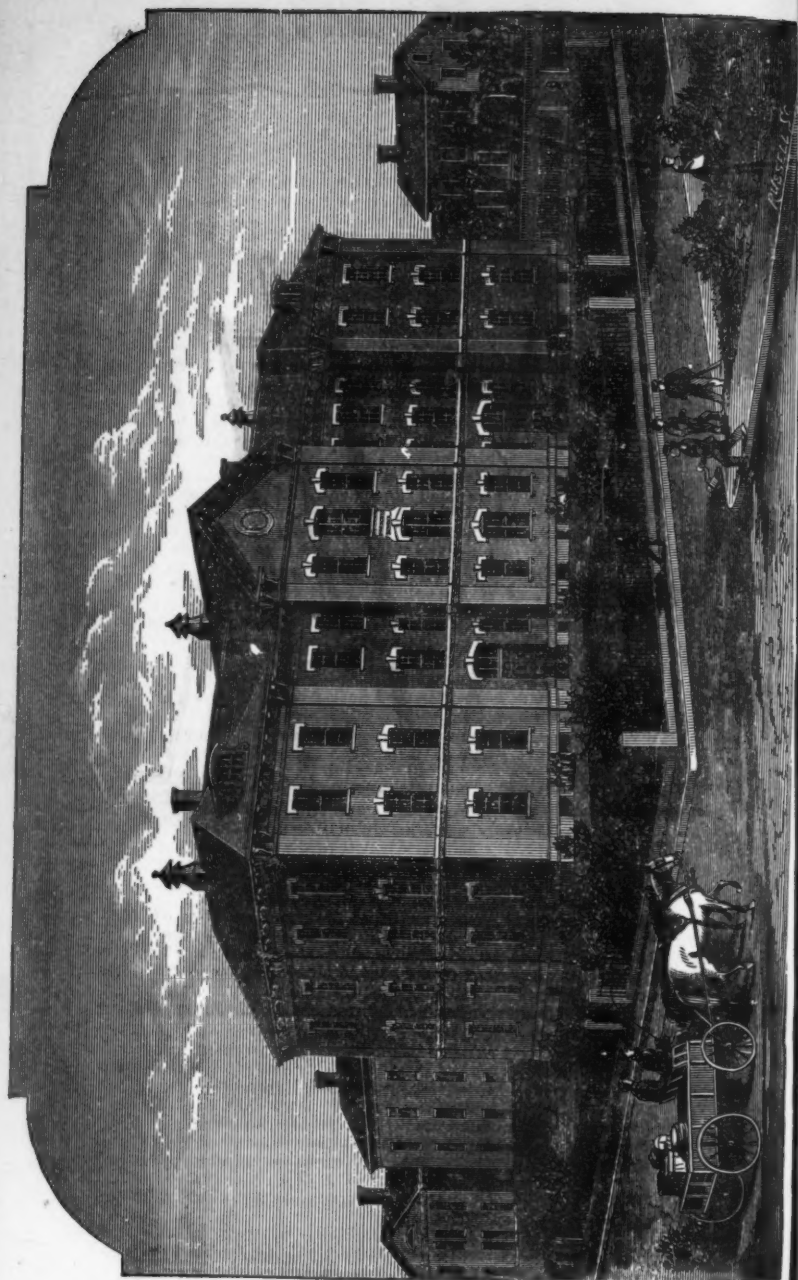
ROSS'S IMPROVED TEACHER'S DESK.



ROSS'S IMPROVED ADJUSTABLE STAND,

Which will be found very convenient for the exhibition of Philbrick's Boston Primary School Tablets, or small Black-boards, in the School-room. This movable stand enables the Teacher to place the Tablet where it can be seen to the best advantage by the class. The ledges on which the Tablet rests may be raised or lowered at pleasure.

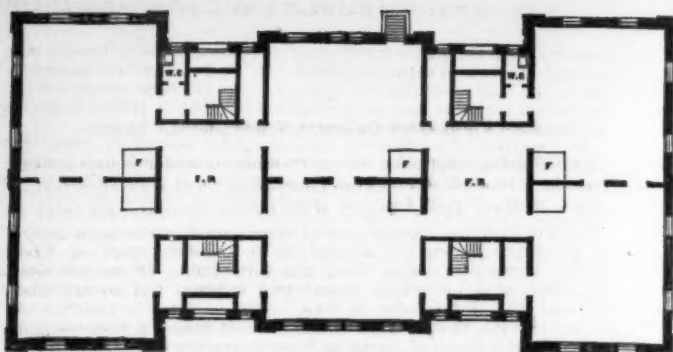
The above stand is introduced and in extensive use in the Boston Primary Schools.



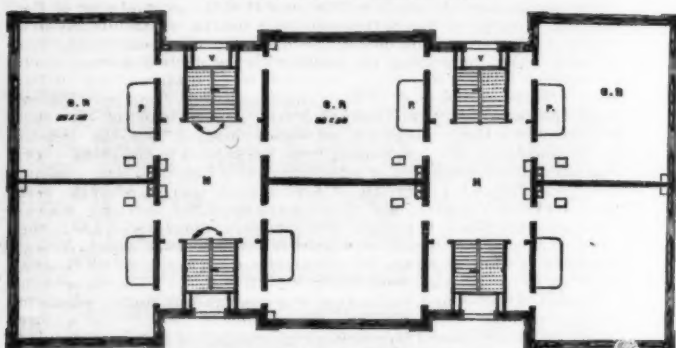
PLANS OF PRESCOTT GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSE, BOSTON.

The following description of the Prescott Grammar School-house, prepared by Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools, is taken from the Annual Report of the School Committee for 1865:—

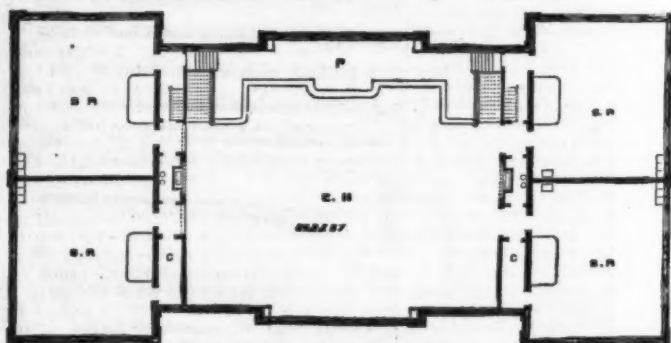
This noble edifice, which is well represented in the accompanying perspective view, is located in the easterly part of East Boston, about two miles from the City Hall. It stands near the centre of a lot which is just two hundred feet square, and is bounded on three sides by wide streets. It has a frontage of one hundred and thirty-eight feet on Prescott Street, and sixty-eight feet on Bennington and Saratoga Streets, respectively. It is three stories high, exclusive of the basement and attic. From an inspection of the accompanying cuts it will be seen that the ground plan of the building consists of five parts, namely, a central portion thirty-five feet by sixty, two wings, each thirty-one feet by sixty-eight; and two entrance halls, connecting the wings with the central portion, each twenty-one feet by fifty-six. There are four entrances, one in the front and one in the rear of each entrance hall, the two principal or front entrances being on Prescott Street. In each of the entrance halls there are two well-lighted staircases, leading from the first to the second story, and one leading from the second to the third story. The building contains *sixteen* school-rooms, of the same size, namely, twenty-eight feet by thirty-two. Six of these rooms are on the first floor, six on the second, and four on the third. It will be seen, on examining the plans, that each of the twelve rooms which are in the wings has a spacious and well-lighted clothes-closet attached, and that each of the four rooms in the central portion has two such closets. Each of these closets communicates both with its adjacent school-room and entrance hall, and serves as a passage-way for the pupils in going in and out of their rooms. These closets are only half a story in height, there being above each an apartment of the same size and height, which is entered from a middle landing of a staircase. The latter are designed for dressing-rooms and water-closets for teachers, receptacles for books, school apparatus, etc. The school-rooms of the first and second stories are twelve and a half feet high in the clear; and those of the third story fourteen feet. The whole of the third story of the central portion, with a part of the space over each entrance hall, is devoted to an assembly and exhibition hall, which is sixty-five feet long, fifty-seven feet wide, and eighteen feet high. This is the largest and best hall for school purposes in the city. Its symmetrical and convenient arrangement is shown in plan No. 3. The basement, which is well paved with bricks, is ten feet high, and its extensive area, with the exception of the space occupied by the heating apparatus, is available as play-rooms for the pupils in stormy weather. The floors of the entrance halls are rendered fire-proof by means of iron beams supporting brick arches, on which are laid North River flagging stones. The other floors are laid with scantlings $1\frac{1}{2}$ by 14 inches, blind-nailed, forming a solid and smooth surface,—such as is needed for receiving the screws which secure the seats and desks,—without any wide cracks at the joints. All the windows are fitted with inside folding blinds, and those on the northerly and westerly sides have double sashes. The halls in each story are furnished with sinks, which are supplied with water from the Cochituate pipes. All the rooms are brought into communication with the master's room by means of speaking tubes and bells. Each of the school-rooms is furnished with fifty-six single desks and chairs of the most approved



Plan No. 1. Basement.



Plan No. 2. First and Second Floors.



Plan No. 3. Third Floor.

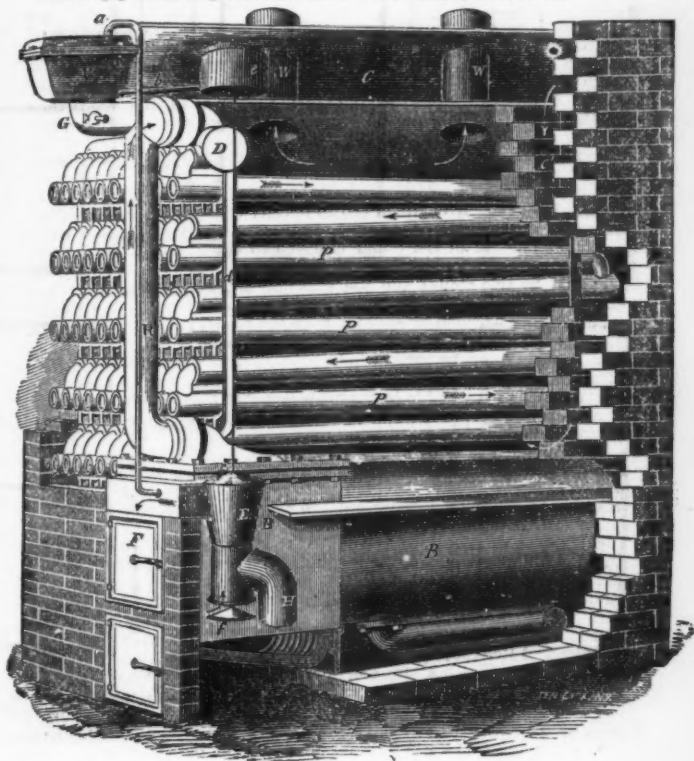
PLAN No. 2.—S. R. School-room.
P. Teacher's Platform.
H. Corridor.
V. Vestibule.

PLAN No. 3.—S. R. School-room.
E. H. Assembly Hall.
P. Platform.
C. Clothes Closet.

patterns. All the school furniture proper for teachers and pupils was manufactured at the establishment of J. L. Ross, of the best materials, and in the most workmanlike manner. The teachers' chairs and the settees for the large hall were furnished by John C. Hubbard, whose work in this line is always of the very first quality.

The method of ventilation does not differ essentially from that which has been applied to the other Grammar School-houses, excepting the Bowditch School-house. A ventiduct 16 X 16 inches in the clear, constructed of smoothly planed matched boards, is carried up from the floor of each room to the attic. Here these ventiducts are united in three groups, each group being carried up through the roof in a single shaft, which is surmounted by a 42-inch Leed's cap. Each ventiduct has two openings, which are fitted with valves, one being near the ceiling of the room from which it leads, and the other near the floor.

The building is heated by Brown's self-regulating, hot-water furnaces, which were furnished and set up by Geo. W. Walker & Co. The following description and cut, taken from the manufacturer's circular, present the essential features of this apparatus for heating. In this building there are three boilers, and to secure an equal distribution of the heating power, there is an independent stack of hot-water pipes in a separate air-chamber for each school-room.



"This hot-water apparatus consists of a horizontal boiler (*B*) which encloses the fire, insuring perfect safety, and precluding all possibility of any portion of the fire surface being heated above the boiling point. Over the boiler, and forming a continuation of it, is a stack of cast-iron pipes (*P*), arranged in horizontal convolutions, and filled, like the boiler, with water. A constant circulation of hot water is kept up through every portion of the radiating pipe, so long as the fire in the boiler is maintained.

A solid foundation of brickwork being prepared, the boiler (*B*) is set therein, the fire (*F*) being lit in the front of it, and the fire-box is made of the boiler itself, so that all the available heat produced by the combustion of the fuel is absorbed by the water. The entire apparatus being filled and the fire made, the water gradually ascends through the rising pipe (*R*) to the distributing pipe (*D*), and displaces the water in the pipes, causing it to pass into the boiler through the return pipe, (seen at bottom of boiler,) thus a continuous circulation of hot water is secured. The arrows in the cut indicate the direction of the currents.

The boiling of the water in the apparatus actuates the draft regulator. When the furnace is full of water, the bottom of a portion of the box (*V*) is covered with water to the depth of an inch, the box (*V*) is divided up to about four-fifths of its height, and a siphon connects the two compartments.

When ebullition commences, the water is thrown over the top of the partition and passes through the pipe (*b*) into the box (*e*), that contains a float which, as it rises, closes the lower valve (*f*), (which through pipe *H*, supplies the draft to the fire,) and elevates the upper valve (*J*), in order to admit the cold air on the top of the fire and thus check the boiling. The water having ceased to boil, returns from box (*e*) to box (*V*) through the siphon. The consequent descent of the float and valves allows the draft to pass under the fire until ebullition again takes place.

Danger from fire is entirely out of the question, and as the fire is surrounded by cast iron, lined (so to speak) with water, and as the tendency of fluids, when heated, is upward, and to descend when cooled, that portion of the boiler exposed to the fire is always the coolest part of the apparatus. The stack of pipe is enclosed on either side by two walls; and the exterior air, after passing by a conduit (*C*) constructed for the purpose, into the space between them, and being warmed by contact with the pipes, rises through the conductors (*W*) and the registers into the rooms it is designed to warm. Nothing can be more wholesome, pure and refreshing than the atmosphere thus evolved. No pernicious gases are present. No offensive odor is perceptible in the air warmed in this manner."

As an aid to proper ventilation (a subject of vital importance), this invention seems to have some important advantages. The fact that the radiating surface is at so low a temperature (below 212°), shows that a very great volume of air is required to warm an apartment sufficiently, which, when provided with means of egress, will most thoroughly ventilate by forcing out the impure atmosphere through the flues provided for the purpose.

The style of architecture resembles the Italian, with bracketed cornice, and pilasters at the intersections of the exterior and partition walls. All the walls, including the partitions, are constructed of bricks. The exterior walls are faced with pressed bricks, and built with a four-inch air space between the outer and inner surfaces. The basement, string course, and door and window dressing are of fine hammered Rockport granite. The cornice is of wood. The roof is covered with Welsh slate, and fitted with copper gutters. The interior standing wood-work is grained in a very tasteful style.

The yard is enclosed on the three sides which are bounded by streets, by a substantial and handsome iron fence, and on the back

side by the water-closets and a brick wall. The rear portion of the yard, which is used as a play-ground, is paved with bricks; the front part is to be ornamented with trees, shrubs and flowers.

The contractors who furnished the heating apparatus and the furniture have already been named, and it is but just to record here the names of other parties who have, in various ways, contributed by their skill and taste to the construction of this great and well-built school-house. The excellence of the painting and graining is due to James Ransom; of the mason work, to Sayward and Lothrop; of the carpenter work, to Isaac C. Trowbridge; and of the slating, to C. S. Parker and Sons. Its architectural merit is due to George S. Ropes, Jr., the able architect. The adoption of the design was secured mainly through the influence of Judge Wright, of the Committee. Mr. James C. Tucker, Superintendent of Public Buildings, had the immediate supervision of its erection,—a duty which he performed with great fidelity and good judgment. Special credit belongs to the Sub-Committee of the City Council, consisting of Alderman Davies and Councilmen C. R. McLean and N. M. Morrison, who had the entire responsibility of the execution of the work in their hands, and who spared no pains to render it satisfactory and complete in all its parts, “from turret to foundation stone.”

The cost of the lot was about \$8,000, and the whole cost of the building and lot, including the iron fence, the furniture and heating apparatus, was \$109,585.76.

Thus has been designed and erected the largest and most costly school edifice in Boston, and perhaps in the whole country. Two of the objections to the plan of the Grammar School-houses which we have built in the course of the last year, namely, the too great height of four stories, and the imperfections of the exhibition halls, have been obviated in the plan of the Prescott School-house. To accomplish this, a larger size was adopted. Whether the future Grammar School buildings shall be constructed on this model, in respect to size, is a question for the School Board to decide.

We subjoin from Mr. Philbrick's Twelfth Semi-Annual Report as Superintendent of Public Schools, for March 1866, the following remarks on the *proper size* of Grammar Schools in Boston.—

After much study and many efforts, we seem to have settled some important points in building school-houses, such as the mode of seating, the providing of a separate school-room for each teacher, and the proper model of such rooms as to size, arrangements, and the essentials of the clothes-rooms connected with the school-rooms. In these particulars our more recent school-houses are as good as could be desired. In a pamphlet by G. P. Randall, an accomplished architect in Chicago, containing plans in perspective of several noble school-houses which have recently been erected in the Northwestern States,—a document well calculated to open our eyes to the extraordinary educational enterprise of that section of the country,—I find the following statement respecting the arrangements of school-rooms.

“It is now pretty generally admitted by practical educators that a single room, large enough to seat from fifty to sixty-five scholars, and exclusively under the supervision and instruction of a single teacher, is better than a larger room, with recitation rooms and assistant teachers. I make designs for them both ways, but probably not more than one in fifteen with the large room and recitation rooms attached. As I am generally *instructed* in this matter, it follows that teachers are almost unanimous in the opinion that the single room system is the best; and it is the system adopted by the School Board of Chicago in the public schools of this city.”

The origin of this system may be easily traced to the Quincy Grammar school-house, in this city, erected in 1847-48, the plans and description of which were published in Barnard's School Architecture. Another feature of this edifice as it then was, has not been so generally imitated, but which, I trust, will ultimately come to be considered an indispensable element in every Grammar School-house, namely, — *a hall large enough to seat comfortably all the pupils accommodated in the several school-rooms.* This is the case already in the city of New York.

But in respect to the important elements of heating and warming, we are still unsettled. Within the past twenty years there have been three radical changes made in the mode of heating our Primary school-houses. First, the old-fashioned coal stove gave place to Clark's ventilating stove. Subsequently this stove gradually went out of use, and in its place the ordinary cylinder coal stove was substituted. Lastly, this stove has been removed and hot-air furnaces introduced. The High School buildings are heated with hot-air furnaces; and nineteen of the Grammar School buildings are heated in the same way, while two are furnished with different systems of steam-heating apparatus. For ventilation, most of the buildings have Emerson's caps, with a separate ventiduct for each room, furnished with two registers, one near the ceiling and one near the floor. Robinson's system has been applied to one Grammar and one Primary building, the Normal Hall is furnished with the Archimedean system, and the Prescott School with Leed's caps. To furnish school-rooms in large and high buildings with an abundant supply of pure air of the requisite temperature and humidity, for health and comfort, is a difficult problem. Considerable progress has been made, no doubt, towards its solution, and it is hoped that the Committee on Public Buildings will continue to experiment upon it, guided by the principles of science and the light of experience, until satisfactory results are reached.

The question as to the maximum number of stories in height to which a school-house should be carried has caused some discussion amongst us. Nearly all the Grammar school-houses are at least four stories high. Several are practically five stories in height, as they have their play-ground on a level with the basement. There can be but one argument thought of in favor of carrying school-buildings up to this great height, and that is the argument of economy. As sky costs nothing, the expense of a building four stories high is less than one of the same capacity which is two or three stories high. But a school-house is never truly economical unless it meets the requirements of health, convenience and safety. In all these respects the four-story plan is decidedly objectionable, and I earnestly hope that it will be wholly and forever repudiated. In Baltimore a large and fine building has been erected for a Girls' High School. This edifice is only *two stories* high. There is in the same city another building three stories high occupied by a school of the same description. This school-house is considered too high, and it is proposed to build one to take its place which shall be only two stories high. In this particular the educational policy of Baltimore is certainly wiser than that of our own city, and more truly economical. Our new Primary school-houses are, with a single exception, three stories high, and it is to be hoped that no one will ever seriously think of carrying one to a greater height.

I have said that we seem to have arrived at a definite idea of what a school-room should be in respect to size, arrangements, proportion and seating. This is an important step gained. *But what should be the standard number of rooms for a building?* This is a question which has very important bearings on the interests of our schools, and it deserves the most serious consideration of the Board. In what I have to say on this topic, I do not propose to refer to High School

buildings, which constitute a class by themselves. By referring to the list of our school-houses, it will be seen that fourteen school-rooms is the number contained in each of the more recent buildings, excepting that of the Prescott School, which has sixteen. The former number of rooms will accommodate about 800 pupils and the latter 900. It thus appears that the Prescott school-house, the latest on the list, is designed to accommodate a hundred more pupils than could be seated in any one of the very large buildings which had been previously erected. Now, in view of our system of classification, the course of study required, the way in which pupils are promoted, the management in respect to graduation, and the distribution of the work of instruction to teachers of different sexes and grades, — considering these circumstances, and looking back upon the operation of the schools twenty years ago, when the number of pupils to a master averaged about one-third as high as it now does, to my mind it is clear that the tendency to increase the size of our schools is a bad tendency. Other things being equal, I should much prefer to send a child to one of our schools of the smallest size rather than to one of the largest. It is true, in general, that a large school may be more efficient and economical than a small one. But there must be a limit somewhere. It is certain that a school may be too large as well as too small. In some cities the schools are too small, in others they are too large. There are two objections to small schools; first, the expense of salaries sufficient to secure first-rate principals, — and without such principals you can never have superior schools; and, second, they cannot be perfectly classified, and so the teaching power cannot be applied to the best advantage. On the other hand, as you increase the size of a school, conducted on our present plan, you diminish the chances which a pupil has to get through the school and graduate at a suitable age. I do not say that our schools *might not be organized and conducted* in such a manner as to obviate this objection, but the accomplishment of this object in the face of the opposition which it would inevitably encounter, is a consummation rather to be desired than expected. Instead, therefore, of attempting to change the organization so as to adapt it to the largest sized building, it seems to me wiser and more practicable to adapt the size of the buildings hereafter erected to the organization as it now exists.

But besides the radical objections to the size of the largest buildings already stated, there are others of grave importance. One of these is its tendency to keep large and numerous "school colonies," so called, in poor and unfit accommodations. Ever since the large schools have been in fashion, we have had almost continually large colonies, or branches of one or more Grammar Schools, stowed away in rented rooms, where the pupils suffer many inconveniences and disadvantages. The Chapman School had colonies scattered about in different buildings for eight or ten years, before it was relieved by the erection of the Prescott house. There are still at this very time eight of our Grammar Schools with colonies of this description attached, comprising twenty-five divisions, with pupils enough to make three good-sized Grammar Schools. The cause of this state of things is plain enough. It is found in the policy of building very large school-houses. For it is obvious, that in order to justify the great expense of erecting one of these colossal edifices, there must be a large surplus of pupils in a given locality. To furnish these colonies with better accommodations, it has been proposed, in two or three cases, to erect buildings for their special use, thus making them permanent branch-schools — a remedy worse than the disease, and tending only to aggravate and perpetuate all the evils of overgrown schools. The true and effectual remedy for this great evil of keeping in operation so many colonies outside the regular school organization, is to be found in the policy of limiting the size of our buildings to reasonable dimensions.

There is another serious evil connected with this system which has been too little regarded. It is the necessity which it involves of bringing together, to make up the schools, the most diverse and heterogeneous materials. I know this is an extremely delicate subject to touch upon, but I am satisfied that it ought to be considered, and therefore I shall venture to throw out some suggestions upon it, and take the risk of having both my motives and my judgment condemned. My sympathies naturally lean very strongly to the indigent classes who are struggling to better their condition. But I remember that the image of Justice is pictured to us with bandaged eyes, to symbolize her impartiality. The just rights of all classes should be equally regarded; and while we are anxious to provide every needed facility for the education of the children of the poor, I think we ought not to ignore the educational wants of the wealthy portion of the community, who pay taxes so largely and liberally for the support of our schools. I think that Beacon Hill* should be just as well provided for as Fort Hill.† But if you build a school-house large enough to accommodate both localities, and require the parents to send their children to that one school or none, it is obvious that both sections are not equally provided for. But this supposed extreme case illustrates the kind of injustice we are doing, to a greater or less extent, all over the city, by the large-school system. I often point with satisfaction and pride, as an evidence of the success of our system of common schools, to the fact that boys from the wealthier families, and the sons of the highest officials, are found in the same schools with the child of the African race, and the poor newsboy. But I see plainly that there are necessary limitations, even in our intensely democratic community, in the practical application of this idea of bringing together the representatives of the extremes of society in the same school-rooms. The children of the poor must go to such schools as are provided for them, or not go at all; but if the schools provided do not suit the taste of the wealthy parent, he can and will withdraw his children and put them under private tuition. You may say, let him do it, then. That is not my way of disposing of the matter. I hold to the great principle that public schools should not only be free to all, but that they should be made good enough for all, so that, as far as practicable, the children of all classes may attend them. To this end the schools must be adapted to the wants of all. I am well aware that this cannot be done in this country by copying the British system of caste schools, which is based on the idea that the laboring classes, the middling classes and the aristocracy, must each be educated in separate and distinct classes of educational institutions. I only mean to maintain, and this I do maintain firmly, that the wealthy citizen in Boston ought not to be virtually deprived of the advantages of the Public School, which he would enjoy incidentally, if the school-houses were only kept within the limits as to size which a proper regard to efficiency and true economy demands.

Having now presented some of the objections to the policy of building very large edifices for Grammar Schools, I am prepared to give my answer to the practical question, What should be considered the standard size for a Grammar school-house? I proceed on the assumption that there is a natural limit to the size of such a school for the purposes of economy and efficiency. And in view of the vast and varied interests involved in the management of public education, it is highly important to understand what that limit is, and to make our school architecture conform to it. This principle is aptly illustrated in navigation. The size of the vessel must be adapted to the business, or profits do not accrue. What would be thought of the business

*The residence of the wealthiest inhabitants.

†The residence of the poorest foreigners.

sagacity of the ship owner who should send his coasting schooner to India, and put his Indianman to the coasting service? What steam is in navigation, classification or grading is in school economy. But the application of steam to navigation has its natural limitations, as the experiment of the Great Eastern has proved. And so has classification its proper limits, as has already been shown in some overgrown graded schools which seem to have been modelled on the pattern of the mammoth steamship. To determine the proper size of a Grammar School, it is only necessary to ascertain how many pupils are required to secure a good classification, and then adapt the size of the edifice to the accommodation of this number. To ascertain this number is a practical problem. It is easily solved by experience. Every intelligent educator understands it. All would not of course fix upon exactly the same number, but there would not be an essential difference of opinion among experts. The able superintendent of schools of New Haven thinks that both the Primary and Grammar grades combined in one organization in one building require only about 750 pupils for the purposes of a good classification; and he bases his recommendations respecting school architecture on this conclusion. This I should regard as the minimum number for the purpose, if I must take in pupils from five to sixteen years of age. But our system of Grammar Schools includes pupils from eight to sixteen years of age. Within this range, I consider 500 pupils about a fair average necessary for the purposes of a good classification, and a building large enough to accommodate this number is my standard for a Grammar School organized as ours are. I do not say that I would never build one larger or smaller; I should pay a proper regard to other considerations in every particular case to be provided for. But this would be my standard, all variations from it being considered as exceptions. Now, what sort of a building will answer this purpose? I answer, a building nearly resembling the Chapman school-house in proportions and capacity, being three stories high, *and having ten school-rooms, and a hall large enough to seat all the pupils accommodated in the school-rooms.* I do not name the Chapman as a building to copy in all details, nor yet in architectural taste, for it is by no means a model in respect to beauty; but I refer to it as containing the essential accommodations for a Boston Grammar School. We may take pride in showing strangers an enormous four-story school-house, as evidence of our liberal provisions for free schools, but we cannot afford to sacrifice our substantial educational interests for the sake of any such gratification. We do not want mere show schools: we want real educating schools.

Twenty years ago I strenuously advocated the policy of large schools, according to the extent of my limited influence. But at that time the question was not between schools of five hundred pupils and schools of a thousand, under one head, but between those of two or three hundred and those of five hundred. What was then deemed a large school is now reckoned (with us) a small school. Twenty years ago I ventured to predict that the increase of the size of our schools to five hundred or six hundred pupils under one master would elevate the position of the master and secure for him a higher salary,—a very important consideration in school economy. My anticipations have been more than realized. But this is only an incidental advantage of large schools, and it will not do to increase the size of schools without limit, merely to create responsible situations for principals. Besides, a Grammar School of five hundred, with the Primary Schools grouped around which should be placed under the same head, is as large as is desirable for the proper supervision of one principal.

I have thus protracted the discussion of this topic, because it seems to me a topic of vital importance, and if what I have said shall lead to a careful consideration of it by the School Board and the City Council, my object will be accomplished.



ROSS'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL DESK AND CHAIR, IN
PRESCOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.



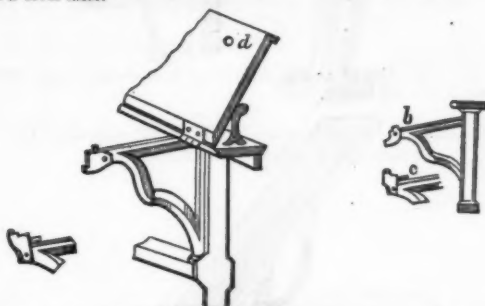
ROSS'S PRINCIPAL'S DESK FOR GRAMMAR SCHOOL, IN
PRESCOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

As drawing is a regular study in our best conducted schools, suitable provision should be made, in the construction and arrangement of school furniture, for its convenient prosecution. If this branch is to be attended to at the desks usually occupied by the pupil, a light frame can be attached to the desk to support the model, or lesson copy, and a movable ledge provided, on which the upper part of the drawing board may rest.

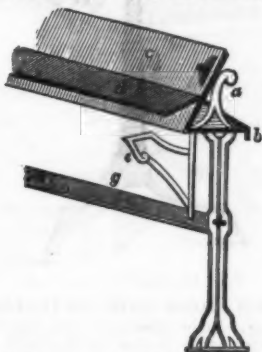
A LEAF AND DRAWING DESK.

A drawing desk may be made, in connection with a fall or leaf desk, after the following plan, from Richson's School Builder's Guide.

In the fall or leaf desk, the leaf is attached to the level, fixed portion *b*, by hinges, and when turned up leans on an iron rod, or support *a*, and when turned down rests on a bracket (Fig. 1.) The bracket moves on iron pins, let into the under side of the desk above, and the strengthening bar *g*, below. The end of the arm of the bracket is made with a swivel joint, composed of two projecting points or pins, at right angles to each other, both of which fit into a hole *d*, on the under side of the desk, to prevent any movement of the bracket. When one of these points *f*, (Fig. 2,) is up, the leaf resting upon it forms an inclined desk, and when the other point *h*, is turned up, an extra height is gained and the leaf forms a level table.



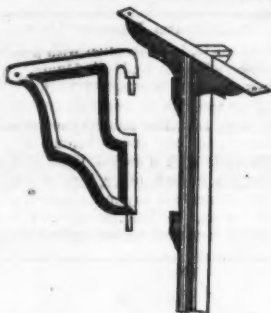
This form of study or writing desk is easily converted into a drawing desk, (Fig. 3,) by fitting to the under side *e*, of the leaf near the hinge, a wedge-



shaped ledge *d*, on which the upper end of the movable drawing board may rest, while the other end is placed on the pupils knees. The bracket *e*, is formed with a curve, in order to admit the ledge when the leaf is let down. The model or

copy can rest on the ledge and against the leaf *c*. The bracket can be turned in when the leaf is thus used.

The annexed cut, Fig. 4, exhibits another method of forming the bracket in a cast iron standard. The upper portion of the standard is, in this specimen, provided with stays, into which the wood work is attached by screws.



We give below the plan of a movable drawing desk, designed and manufactured by Joseph L. Ross, Boston.



ROSS' MOVABLE DRAWING DESK.

The standard consists of a hollow iron pillar, with a neat tripod base, on which it rests firmly on the floor. In this pillar is inserted a shaft, controlled by a screw, to raise or lower the desk at the pleasure of the pupil. The desk or drawing table is attached to the top of the shaft by hinges, on which it can be turned, and, by means of a circle, which passes through the shaft, and a screw, fixed at any angle required. Attached to the under side of the table is a drawer to receive the implements, &c.

The following cuts represent a front view (Fig. 1,) and end section (Fig. 2,) of the desk, and a front view and section of a drawing board (Fig. 3,) recommended for the use of the drawing schools in connection with the Department of Practical Art in the Board of Trade, England.

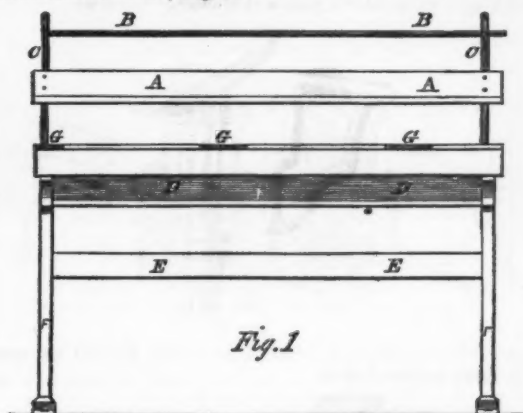


Fig. 1.—FRONT VIEW OF DRAWING DESK.



Fig. 2.—SECTION OF DRAWING DESK.

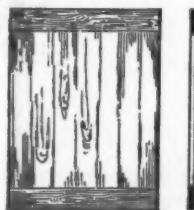


Fig. 3

A, A, Fig. 1, A, Fig. 2—A wooden rail, screwed to iron uprights C, C, to hold the examples or copy.

B, B, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch rod, passing through eyes in $\frac{1}{2}$ inch iron uprights, C, C, C, to support the examples.

C, C, C, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch iron uprights, screwed to the desk at I, and punched at the upper end to receive the iron rod B.

D, D, hollow space to hold the students' pencils, knives, &c.

E, E, wooden rail to stiffen uprights, F, F, F, which are screwed to the floor G, G, (Fig. 1,) short fillets, as shown at G, (Fig. 2,) placed opposite each student, to retain the board, or example more upright if necessary.

H, (Fig. 2,) a fillet running along the desk, to prevent pencils, &c., rolling off.

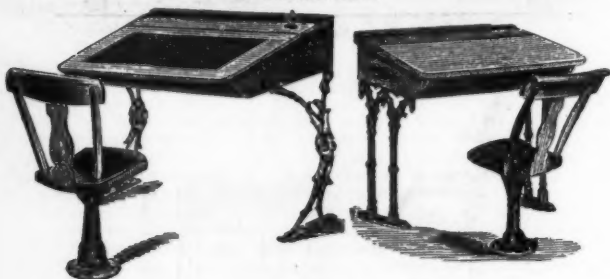
SHATTUCK'S IMPROVED SCHOOL FURNITURE.

WILLIAM G. SHATTUCK, No. 80 Commercial Street. and 149 and 153 Fulton Street, Boston, manufactures a variety of School Furniture, of which the following cuts represent specimens.

No. 1. BOSTON PRIMARY SCHOOL CHAIR.



No. 2. SINGLE AND DOUBLE DESK FOR GRAMMAR AND DISTRICT SCHOOLS, WITH AN IMPROVED CHAIR.



No. 3. DESK AND CHAIRS FOR TEACHER IN VARIETY OF PATTERNS.



PLANS, &c., OF AN OCTAGONAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Furnished for the "School and School-master," by Messrs. Town and Davis.

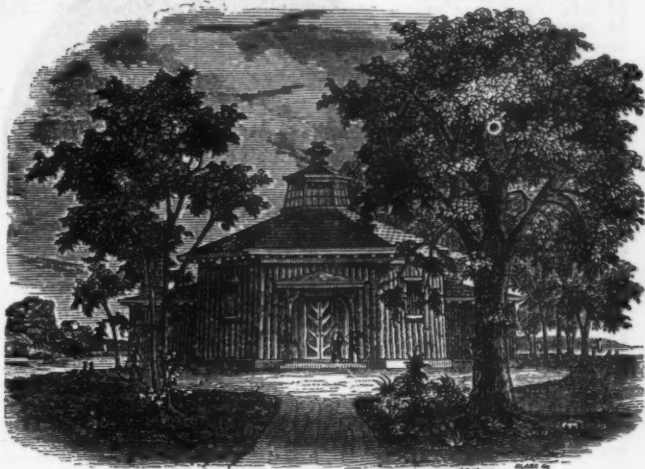


Fig. 1.

This design for a school-house intends to exhibit a model of fitness and close economy. The principles of fitness are, 1. *Ample dimensions*, with very nearly the *least possible length of wall* for its inclosure, the roof being constructed without tie beams, the upper and lower ends of the rafters being held by the wall plates and frame at the foot of the lantern. The ceiling may show the timber-work of the roof, or it may be plastered. 2. *Light, a uniform temperature, and a free ventilation*, secured by a lantern light, thus avoiding lateral windows (except for air in summer,) and gaining wall-room for blackboards, maps, models, and illustrations. Side windows are shown in the view, and may be made an *addition* by those who doubt the efficiency of the lantern light. (The lantern is not only best for light, but it is essential for a free ventilation.) With such a light, admitted equally to all the desks, there will be no inconvenience from shadows. The attention of the scholars will not be distracted by occurrences or objects out of doors. There will be less expense for broken glass, as the sashes will be removed from ordinary accidents. The room, according to this plan, is heated by a fire in the center, either in a stove or grate, with a pipe going directly through the roof of the lantern, and finishing outside in a sheet-iron vase, or other appropriate cap. The pipe can be tastefully fashioned, with a hot-air chamber near the floor, so as to afford a large radiating surface before the heat is allowed to escape. This will secure a uniform temperature in every part of the room, at the same time that the inconvenience from a pipe passing directly over the heads of children, is avoided. The octagonal shape will admit of any number of seats and desks, (according to the size of the room,) arranged parallel with the sides, constructed as described in specification, or on such principles as may be preferred. The master's seat may be in the center of the room, and the seats be so constructed that the scholars may sit with their backs to the center, by which their attention will not be diverted by facing other scholars on the opposite side, and yet so that at times they may all face the master, and the whole school be formed into one class. The lobby next to the front door is made large, (8 by 20) so that it may serve for a recitation-room. This lobby

is to finish eight feet high, the inside wall to show like a screen, not rising to the roof, and the space above be open to the school-room, and used to put away or station school apparatus. This screen-like wall may be hung with hats and clothes, or the triangular space next the window may be inclosed for this purpose. The face of the octagon opposite to the porch, has a wood-house attached to it, serving as a sheltered way to a double privy beyond. This woodhouse is open on two sides, to admit of a cross draught of air, preventing the possibility of a nuisance. Other wing-rooms (A A) may be

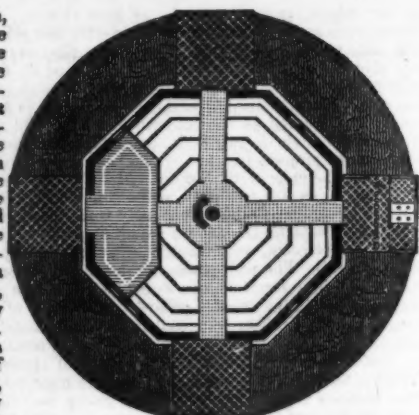


Fig. 2.

be attached to the remaining sides of the octagon, if additional conveniences for closets, library, or recitation-rooms be desired.

The mode here suggested, of a lantern in the center of the roof for lighting all common school-houses, is so great a change from common usage in our country, that it requires full and clear explanations for its execution, and plain and satisfactory reasons for its general adoption, and of its great excellence in preference to the common mode. They are as follows, viz.:

1. A skylight is well known to be far better and stronger than light from the sides of the building in cloudy weather, and in morning and evening. The difference is of the greatest importance. In short days (the most used for schools) it is still more so.

2. The light is far better for all kinds of study than side light, from its quiet uniformity and equal distribution.

3. For smaller houses, the lantern may be square, a simple form easily constructed. The sides, whether square or octagonal, should incline like the drawing, but not so much as to allow water condensed on its inside to drop off, but run down on the inside to the bottom, which should be so formed as to conduct it out by a small aperture at each bottom pane of glass.

4. The glass required to light a school-room equally well with side lights would be double what would be required here, and the lantern would be secure from common accidents, by which a great part of the glass is every year broken.

5. The strong propensity which scholars have to look out by a side window would be mostly prevented, as the shutters to side apertures would only be opened when the warm weather would require it for air, but never in cool weather, and therefore no glass would be used. The shutters being made very tight, by calking, in winter, would make the school-room much warmer than has been common; and, being so well ventilated, and so high in the center, it would be more healthy.

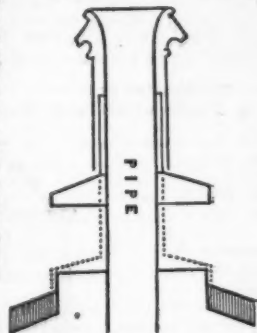
6. The stove, furnace, or open grate, being in the center of the room, has great advantages, from diffusing the heat to all parts, and equally to all the scholars; it also admits the pipe to go perpendicularly up, without any inconvenience, and it greatly facilitates the ventilation, and the retention or escape of heat, by means of the sliding cap above.



Construction.—Foundation of hard stone, laid with mortar; the superstructure framed and covered with $1\frac{1}{2}$ plank, tongued, grooved, and put on vertically, with a fillet, chamfered

at the edges, over the joint, as here shown. In our view, a rustic character is given to the design by covering the sides with slabs; the curved side out, tongued and grooved, without a fillet over the joint; or formed of logs placed vertically, and lathed and plastered on the inside. The sides diminish slightly upward. A rustic porch is also shown, the columns of cedar boles, with vines trained upon them. The door is battened, with braces upon the outside, curved as shown, with a strip around the edge. It is four feet wide, seven high, in two folds, one half to be used in inclement weather. The cornice projects two feet six inches, better to defend the boarding; and may show the ends of the rafters. Roof covered with tin, slate or shingles. Dripping eaves are intended, without gutters. The roof of an octagonal building of ordinary dimensions may with ease and perfect safety be constructed without tie beams or a garret floor (which is, in all cases of school-houses, waste room, very much increasing the exposure to fire, as well as the expense.) The wall-plates, in this case, become ties, and must be well secured, so as to form one connected *hoop*, capable of counteracting the pressure outward of the angular rafters. The sides of the roof will abut at top against a similar timber octagonal frame, immediately at the foot of the lantern cupola. This frame must be sufficient to resist the pressure inward of the roof (which is greater or less, as the roof is more or less inclined in its pitch,) in the same manner as the tie-plates must resist the pressure outward. This security is given in an easy and cheap manner; and may be given entirely by the roof boarding, if it is properly nailed to the angular rafters, and runs horizontally round the roof. By this kind of roof, great additional height is given to the room by *camp-ceiling*; that is, by planing the rafters and roof-boards, or by lathing and plastering on a thin half-inch board ceiling, immediately on the underside of the rafters, as may be most economically performed. This extra height in the center will admit of low side-walls, from seven to ten feet in the clear, according to the size and importance of the building, and, at the same time, by the most simple principle of philosophy, conduct the heated foul air up to the central aperture, which should be left open quite round the pipe of the stove, or open grate standing in the center of the room. This aperture and cap, with the ventilator, is shown by the figure adjoining, which is to a scale of half an inch to a foot. The ventilator is drawn raised, and the dotted lines show it let down upon the roof. It may be of any required size, say two feet wide and twelve inches high, sliding up and down between the stovepipe and an outward case, forming a cap to exclude water. This cap may be pushed up or let down by a rod affixed to the under edge, and lying against the smokepipe.

In the design given, the side-walls are ten feet high, and the lantern fifteen feet above the floor; eight feet in diameter, four feet high. The sashes may open for additional ventilation, if required, by turning on lateral pivots, regulated by cords attached to the edges above. The breadth of each desk is seventeen inches, with a shelf beneath for books, and an opening in the back to receive a slate. The highest desks are twenty-seven inches, inclined to thirty, and the front forms the back of the seat before it. The seat is ten to twelve inches wide, fifteen high, and each pupil is allowed a space of two feet, side to side.



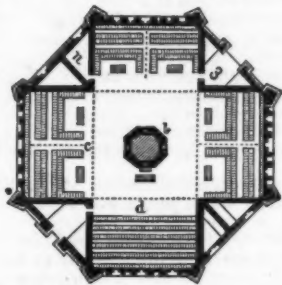
For the sake of variety, we have given a design in the pointed style, revised from a sketch by —, an amateur in architecture. Any rectangular plan will suit it; and the principles of light and ventilation dwelt upon in the description of the octagonal design, may be adapted to this. The principal light



Fig. 3.

is from one large mullioned window in the rear end. The side openings are for air in summer—not glazed, but closed with tight shutters. The same ventilating cap is shown, and height is gained in the roof by framing with collar beams set up four or five feet above the eaves. The sides, if not of brick or stone, may be boarded vertically, as before described.

The following PLAN OF AN OCTAGONAL SCHOOL-HOUSE represents the *School of Practice* annexed to St. Mark's Training College, near London. In the cen-



ter (b) is the fire-place and ventilating apparatus. On the four sides of the brick-work, forming the ventilating apparatus and the chimneys, blackboards, maps, and musical tablets, are suspended, so as to be seen by the classes in the squares or recesses opposite. Each of the four recesses is 20 feet square, and accommodates about 60 pupils, divided into two classes separated by a curtain (c.) In one is a gallery (d) for an infant class.

XI. NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE earliest educational convention in the State of New Jersey was held in Trenton, Nov. 11th, 1828. For some years previous, attention had been more and more drawn to the subject of popular education, and addresses had been delivered on various occasions, whose publication aided in arousing a general interest, as those by Dr. Samuel Miller, in Sept., 1825; by Hon. C. F. Mercer, in Sept., 1826, at the New Jersey College commencement; and by Prof. John Maclean, in January, 1828, before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New Jersey—which Society had been formed in the fall of 1825 “for the promotion of useful knowledge, and the friendly and profitable intercourse of the literary and scientific gentlemen of the State.” The want of better schools and of a better organized system of public instruction had become felt, and the purpose to press upon the attention of the Legislature the necessity of immediate action led to the calling of this public meeting of the friends of education to consult upon the most judicious method of procedure. As a result, a committee was appointed consisting of Messrs. Charles Ewing, John N. Simpson, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, with central county committees, and sub-committees in the different townships, to report upon the number and condition of common schools, and to ascertain, as far as practicable, the number of children wholly destitute of instruction. Very full returns were made from all parts of the State, which were embodied in the report of the committee and published, revealing such a condition of things as could not fail to make an impression upon the Legislature. Numerous petitions and memorials upon the subject were presented to that body, and accordingly, in 1829, an act was passed “to establish common schools,” which, however, proved so defective as to effect but little good and was repealed in 1831.

In April, 1834, a literary convention met at Princeton, which resulted in the formation of the “*New Jersey Lyceum*,” having for its main object the improvement of the system of common school edu-

cation. Rev. Dr. W. R. Weeks was elected President; E. C. Wines, Secretary; and Messrs. A. B. Dod, E. C. Wines, J. W. Alexander, John Lowry, and James Van Deventer, Executive Committee. The first annual meeting was held at Princeton, June 18th, 1834, but of the gentlemen appointed to prepare essays for the occasion none responded, excepting the President, who communicated an able paper on the "*Defects of the Common Schools and their Remedies*." Numerous circulars had been issued soliciting information respecting the condition of the schools, but scarcely half a dozen replies had been received. The attempt was now again made by appointing corresponding committees throughout the State, and another issue of circulars called forth another half-dozen of replies. A special meeting of the Lyceum was held at Trenton, January 21st, 1835, during the session of the Legislature, and a report was made by the Executive Committee of their discouraging ill success and of the profound apathy that prevailed throughout the State. Resolutions respecting the prominent failings and wants of common school teachers were supported by able speeches from Messrs. Prof. Albert D. Dod, D. D., R. S. Field, and Hon. Charles Kinsey. Theodore Frelinghuysen was appointed President, in place of Dr. Weeks, resigned. An attempt was afterwards made by the Lyceum to publish a cheap edition of Cousin's Report on Public Instruction in Prussia for gratuitous distribution, but the committee failed to raise the necessary funds.

Nothing more seems to have been done by the State Lyceum, but at the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, held at Philadelphia in May, 1837, a debate arose upon the principles that should govern a State in applying its surplus revenue to the support of education, and on motion of the delegates of the Perth Amboy Philanthropic Association, the question was referred to the auxiliary societies for fuller discussion. This Association accordingly resumed the discussion, and five public meetings were held, in the course of which the subject was extended to include the condition and wants of the schools of the State, and a committee was appointed (Messrs. J. F. Halsey, of Raritan Seminary, and S. E. Woodbridge,) to embody the views of the Association in a written report. This was done in the form of a "Memorial to the Legislature on Public Instruction," which was published and circulated. The interest soon became general and a State Convention on education was called, which met at Trenton, January 16th, 1838; and continued in session two days, Chief Justice Hornblower presiding. Resolutions were passed recommending the establishment of the

office of State Superintendent of Schools, appointing a General Committee to prepare an address to the people, and County Committees to collect and diffuse information and awaken public interest. A stirring address was prepared by Rt. Rev. G. W. Doane, chairman of the General Committee, which was widely circulated, and other measures, including an annual convention of the friends of education in the State, were in contemplation, but probably not carried out. The Legislature of March, 1838, under the influence of these movements, made some changes in the school law, but not such as were most desired—increasing the annual appropriation and providing for the election of township committees, school trustees, and boards of examiners. The subject was repeatedly introduced at subsequent sessions, but nothing was effected until the passage of the Act of 1846, creating the office of State Superintendent.

In the meantime there had been formed the "*Society of Teachers and Friends of Education in New Jersey*," of which little information can be given. It was organized at New Brunswick, on the 2d of September, 1843, with the following officers:—Rev. James S. Cannon, D. D., *President*. Gov. William Pennington, Hon. W. L. Dayton, Hon. G. P. Molleson, R. S. Field, and John Terhune, *Vice-Presidents*. A. Ackerman and Benj. Mortimer, *Secretaries*. At a quarterly meeting held at New Brunswick, Dec. 2d, 1843, Hon. G. P. Molleson presiding, the prominent subject of discussion was the choice of a series of text-books for general use. A lecture was also delivered by Prof. J. H. Agnew, on the "*Moral Dignity of the Teacher's Office*." The "*Newark Education Society*" had been formed at about the same time. A "*Society for the Improvement of Common Schools*" is also mentioned as existing in 1845, by whom a report was published upon moral and religious instruction in schools. In 1847 the "*Essex County Teachers' Association*" was formed, probably the first in the State, which continued in operation four years.

The want of a Normal School for the training of teachers had been long recognized as one of the main defects of the existing school system, and as early as 1838 and 1839 had been strongly urged upon the attention of the Legislature by the Trustees of the School Fund. No organized and systematic effort, however, was attempted until 1847, during which year meetings were held in several counties and resolves were passed favoring the establishment of such an institution. The most important of these meetings was the Convention of the Friends of Education in Burlington county, held

in Mount Holly on the 18th of November, and again, by adjournment, on the 2d of December. Dr. John Griscom was appointed Chairman, and H. L. Southard, Secretary. A committee, consisting of Messrs. G. D. Wall, J. Griscom, Prof. E. C. Wines, P. V. Coppuck, and Rev. C. A. Kingsbury, made an able report (drawn up by E. C. Wines) covering the whole question of normal schools and accompanied by letters from distinguished men of other States, who had been addressed upon the subject. As a consequence of the action taken by this convention and similar less influential ones, several petitions and one or two counter remonstrances were presented to the Legislature of the following year, 1848, whose Committee on Education reported the draft of an Act for the establishment of a Normal School, which did not pass beyond a second reading. The public sentiment of the State was not yet ready for such action, but by the influence of local conventions, the reports of school officers, of the Superintendent, Hon. T. F. King, and of committees of the Legislature, such an improvement was effected in the few following years as to insure final success.

The first County *Teachers' Institute* in the State was held at Somerville, Somerset county, in November, 1851. It met annually thereafter, each year sending its petition to the Legislature for recognition. Early in 1853 a City Teachers' Association was formed at Newark, whose proceedings and resolves in reference to Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes were widely published. In October of the same year a State Convention was held at Trenton, of which Gov. G. F. Fort was Chairman, and Isaiah Peckham and W. H. Van Nortwick, Secretaries; and through its action, in the following December a convention of the teachers of the State met in New Brunswick and organized a *State Teachers' Association*. During the legislative session of 1854, a committee of three gentlemen, acting under a resolution of this Association, delivered addresses in the Assembly Chamber, before the members of both Houses, upon the subject of popular education. The proceedings of this meeting produced a deep impression upon the Legislature and one of its immediate results was the passage of a law establishing County Teachers' Institutes. Several of these Institutes were held the same year in connection with the meetings of the County Teachers' Associations which had already been organized. In the following year, nearly seventeen years of effort were rewarded with success in the establishment, by act of the Legislature, of the State Normal School—an act which, together with that establishing Teachers' Institutes, effected more for education in New Jersey than all that had previously been done.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION.

The call for the State Convention of Teachers at New Brunswick, on the 28th of Dec., 1853, was signed by Messrs. C. C. Hoagland, J. B. Thompson, and J. T. Clark, a committee of arrangements who had been appointed at the previous meeting in October, and an address to the teachers of the State, designed to enlist them in the proposed association, was simultaneously issued by another committee, consisting of David Cole, J. K. Burnham, and Isaiah Peckham. Nathan Hedges, of Newark, the oldest teacher in the State, presided, and J. T. Clark acted as Secretary, and the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized, of which R. L. Cook was elected President; Isaiah Peckham, Vice-President; and David Cole, Secretary. A committee, as already mentioned, was appointed to address the Legislature upon the interests of education, and a premium of twenty dollars was offered for the best essay on the improvement of common school education in the State.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Trenton, January 18th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by the President, on the "*School Laws of New Jersey*;" by Prof. J. T. Clark, of New Brunswick, on "*Normal Schools*;" and by Henry Barnard, on the "*School Systems of Europe*." Papers were also read by Prof. J. Sanford Smith, upon the "*State Superintendency*;" by C. C. Hoagland, on "*Teachers' Institutes*;" and an essay, by J. T. Clark, to whom had been awarded the premium offered at the previous meeting. C. C. Hoagland, who during the year had been active in conducting Institutes and for more than twenty years had been zealously engaged in educational labors within the State, was appointed State Agent. The New York Teacher was adopted as organ of the Association and Prof. David Cole appointed as corresponding editor. The following officers were elected:—J. T. Clark, *Pres.* W. D. Wiltse and S. Freeman, *Vice-Pres.* David Cole, J. E. Haynes, and J. B. Woodward, *Sec.*; and M. H. Doolittle, *Treas.*

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newark, December 27th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by Hon. R. S. Field, on "*Education in our Common Schools*;" by J. T. Clark, on "*Socrates, the Model Teacher*;" by S. S. Randall, on the "*Principles lying at the Basis of Success in Common School Labor*;" and by Prof. Foster, of Union College, on "*Extreme Views on Education*." J. B. Thompson was appointed State Agent in place of C. C. Hoagland, to whom a vote of thanks was given for his numerous services in the cause of education. Of this gentleman's labors, William H. Wells thus wrote in 1856:—

"This State owes more to his judicious and indefatigable labors for her educational progress than to any other man. Had it not been for him we should not have had our Institute and our Normal School. He has been the life and soul of every really progressive movement in behalf of popular education in this State for the last ten years. His own county (Somerset) has been admitted to be for several years the "banner county," and this mainly through the exertions of Dr. Hoagland. As a conductor of Institutes, he has few if any equals. He possesses energy, tact, and experience, which eminently fit him especially for pioneer movements education-ward."

The following officers were elected:—J. S. Smith, *Pres.* P. L. F. Reynolds and O. A. Kibbe, *Vice-Pres.* T. J. Connalty and G. B. Sears, *Sec.* Samuel Backus, *Treas.*

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bridgeton, August 27th, 1856. Addresses were made, more or less formal, by the President, on the "*History of Education in New Jersey*;" by Prof. W. F. Phelps, on the "*Normal School*," and on "*State School Superintendence*;" by J. B. Thompson, on the "*New Jersey School System*;" and by David Cole, on "*District Libraries*." Discussions were also held on the subjects of "*School Libraries*," and "*Township Appropriations*." Reports were received upon the condition of education in several of the counties, and from the State Agent, who had been indefatigable in his labors and had carried Teachers' Institutes into every county. The following officers were elected:—Isaiah Peckham, *Pres.* W. W. Swett and Colister Morton, *Vice-Pres.* A. Thompson, *Sec.* S. Backus, *Treas.* J. B. Thompson was reappointed State Agent.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Trenton, Dec. 29th, 1857. Addresses by the President, on "*Teaching as a Science*;" by Prof. W. F. Phelps, on the "*Necessity of State Education*;" by Prof. H. Krusi, on "*Pestalozzi*;" and by Dr. Paris, of Philadelphia, on the "*Claims of Idiocy*." A discussion was held upon "*Teachers' Institutes*," and upon the "*Right to an Education*," and the State Agent made his report. A committee was appointed to urge upon the Legislature the appointment of a State Board of Education. The following officers were elected:—William F. Phelps, *Pres.* B. Harrison and S. A. Farrand, *Vice Pres.* G. B. Sears and O. A. Kibbe, *Sec.* S. C. Webb, *Treas.* J. B. Thompson, *State Agent*.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Jersey City, Dec. 28th, 1858. Lectures delivered by T. W. Valentine, on "*Young America*;" by Prof. J. S. Hart, on "*Attention*;" by H. L. Smith and S. J. Sedgwick, on "*Physical Education*;" and essays were read from Mrs. E. V. Smith, on "*School Postures*;" and by H. Q. Johnson, on the "*Teacher and his Profession*;" all of which gave rise to more or less extended discussion. The State Agent made his third annual report, stating that Teachers' Institutes had been held during the

year in nineteen counties with increased interest. The committee on a State Board of Education submitted a report, and after an interesting debate, were instructed to present a memorial on the subject to the Legislature at its next session. An important discussion was also held upon the necessity of arousing popular attention to the cause of education and the duty of the clergy in relation thereto. Officers elected:—B. Harrison, *Pres.* A. J. Doremus and G. Berry, *Vice-Pres.* G. H. Linley and C. T. Wright, *Sec.* J. A. Hallock, *Treas.*

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Camden, Dec. 28th, 1859. Addresses by the President, on "*Worthiness, not Happiness, the end in Morals*;" by Rev. J. M. Johnson, on "*Public Schools in the Rural Districts*;" by Wm. McNeely, on "*County Educational Associations*;" and by E. W. Keyes, Esq., on "*Education in Life, and Life in Education*." Messrs. Wight, Phelps and Peckham were appointed a committee to urge upon the Legislature the subject of a State Board of Education. Officers elected: Nathan Hedges, *Pres.* Wm. A. Breckenridge and Henry K. Bugbee, *Vice-Pres.* Samuel A. Farrand, *Rec. Sec.* Caleb M. Harrison, *Cor. Sec.*; and Wm. McNeely, *Treas.*

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Paterson, Dec. 26th, 1860. Addresses by Geo. B. Sears, on "*Methods of School Examination*;" by the President, on "*Schools of the Olden Time*;" by C. M. Harrison, on the "*Progress of Educational Reform*;" by Prof. Youmans, on the "*Natural Sciences*;" by G. Berry, on the "*Relations of Home to School*;" and by E. A. Sheldon and N. A. Calkins, on "*Object Teaching*." Officers elected:—F. W. Ricord, *Pres.* C. S. Hosford and R. De Hait, *Vice-Pres.* S. A. Farrand, *Rec. Sec.* E. G. Upson, *Cor. Sec.*; and J. E. Haynes, *Treas.*

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newark, April 1st, 1862. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, on the "*Principles of Universal Education*;" by the President, on the "*Relations of Education to National Prosperity*;" by Wm. A. Whitehead, on "*Reading*;" by Wm. D. Casterline, on the "*Moral and Religious Influence of the Teacher in the School-room*;" and by B. J. Howe, on "*Education and Government*." C. S. Hosford was elected President, and S. A. Farrand, Secretary.

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bridgeton, Dec. 29th, 1862. Addresses by John S. Hart, LL. D., on "*Normal Schools*;" by Hon. F. W. Ricord, on the "*School Laws of New Jersey*;" by John Gosman, A. M., on the "*Relations and Duties of Teachers to the*

Country;" and by Prof. Phelps, on a "*Course of Study for Public Schools.*" A paper was read by Mrs. P. C. Case, on "*Object Teaching.*" Among the questions discussed was the "*Desirableness of Military Drill in our Public Schools.*" The resolutions embraced patriotic utterances on the state of the country. S. A. Farrand was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Secretary.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At New Brunswick, Dec. 28th, 1863. Addresses were delivered by W. N. Barringer, A. M., on the "*Objects of Education*;" by Rev. O. R. Willis, on the "*Influence of the Study of Natural History upon Intellectual Education*;" by Rev. Wm. Travis, upon a "*National System of Education*;" by Hon. F. W. Ricord, on the "*Teacher's Work*;" and by Isaiah Peckham, A. M., on "*Education—a Growth.*" A paper was read by Silas Betts upon the "*Comparative Merits of Male and Female Teachers*;" and a report was made by Mr. Ricord concerning teachers of New Jersey who have entered the Union army. L. H. Gauze read a paper on the "*Relation between Common Schools and a Free Government.*" A resolution was unanimously adopted urging upon the Legislature the establishment of a State Reform School. C. M. Harrison was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Secretary.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Rahway, Dec. 27th, 1864. Addresses were delivered by Prof. David Cole, of Rutgers College, on the "*Progress of Education in the State of New Jersey*;" by E. O. Chapman, on the "*Necessary Work still remaining to be done in the Cause of Education*;" by J. M. Quinlan, on "*Education and the War*;" by T. H. Gemmel, subject, "*What is the Teacher?*" and by the President, on the "*State School System.*" A report of the Committee on a "*Uniform Course of Study*" was made by Prof. Peckham. Wm. D. Casterline read a paper on the "*Elements of the Successful Teacher*;" and Joseph E. Haynes made a report from the Committee on a "*State Reform School.*" H. B. Pierce, of Trenton, was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Vice-President.

The Association is and always has been composed mainly of active, energetic teachers, none but those actually engaged in the school-room being admitted to the privileges of full membership, though school officers and others may become honorary members. It has accomplished very much towards the elevation of the standard of common school education in the State, and it is steadily growing, from year to year, in numbers and influence.

NEW JERSEY EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

NATHAN HEDGES.

NATHAN HEDGES, the President of the Convention which formed the New Jersey State Teachers' Association, was born in Bridgehampton, on Long Island, N. Y., Dec. 21, 1792. His early education was in a country school of the "poorest sort" until 1806, when he had the good fortune to attend the New Warren Academy in Morristown, then under the mastership of James Stevenson, born and educated in Scotland—a scholar and Christian gentleman, and afterward, at the Morris Academy, taught by William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, and a classical teacher of great accuracy and thoroughness. Under these two teachers for four years he made as much progress as could be made with but scanty material aids, by good abilities, and conscientious diligence, when his eyesight failing him, he was induced to teach a neighboring village school for nearly three years. This he did with great acceptance to his pupils and their parents, as well as pleasure to himself. After attending again the Morris Academy for a year or more, he was compelled to leave, on account of continued weakness of his eyes, and resumed teaching in 1815. In 1816 he engaged in mercantile business, to which he had served an apprenticeship, and so continued for four or five years. In 1825 he resumed teaching in Morristown, continued until 1824, when he removed to Newark, where he has now been teaching forty-one years. His business training gave shape to his plans and methods as a teacher—it having been his constant aim in his private day-school to make intelligent, competent, and self-reliant business men. He has taught but few studies—the correct spelling, reading, writing, and speaking the English language, a thorough practical knowledge of geography, history, mathematics, and book-keeping—and to these he has added for his best class of boys a thorough drill in Latin, partly for its own use in a knowledge of English, and partly as mental discipline. His scholars on leaving school could at once take important positions in counting-rooms and other large business establishments. Mr. Hedges has from the start taken an active interest in all educational conventions and associations—City, County, State, and National. He has thus kept his own professional knowledge up to the standard of the more advanced teachers, and helped to elevate higher and higher the popular appreciation of the school and a school system, without which the teacher's work will never be properly compensated. To keep his own health up to the exhausting requisitions of the school-room for so many years, he has systematically devoted himself daily and vigorously, before and after school-hours, to the cultivation of fruit and a garden, and thus preserved a cheerful temper, and the ability to be present, without a failure for a single day, since he commenced the practice thirty years ago, and discharge his full duty as a teacher. "May he live a thousand years and his shadow never be less."

LETTER FROM NATHAN HEDGES, ESQ.

My recollection of schools goes back to the first I attended, in Bridgehampton, (near Sag Harbor,) on Long Island, in 1797-98, and the schools in and near Morristown, N. J., from 1800 to 1810. Having either as scholar or teacher been constantly familiar with schools since the commencement of the present century, I will endeavor to describe them as they were sixty years ago, and to compare them with those of the present day.

It is but just to say that, in the beginning of the present century, Morristown was distinguished for educational advantages. It sustained two academies, which were liberally supported, and which educated large numbers of young men, especially from the city of New York; and from the States of Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia. My earliest acquaintance was with the schools in the farming districts, a few miles from the town, from 1799 to 1806. The first I attended was taught by a cruel old man, by the name of Blair, usually known among us as "Clubber Blair." The house was new, about sixteen feet square; had a writing table on one side, fast to the wall, for the larger pupils; all others were seated on benches made of slabs. The only books used in spelling and reading were Dilworth's Spelling-book and the Testament. I have no recollection of an arithmetic in the school. Geography and grammar were not even thought of. To spell, to write, to read in the Testament, and to work the four elementary rules of arithmetic, comprised the whole scope, aim, and object of the school. I well remember that when I could not multiply by even one figure, he would give me a sum in multiplication, with four figures for a multiplier, and from day to day would pound my bare feet with his hickory club for not doing the sum correctly. He furnished no help, no instruction, no kind encouragement to a beginner, but relied entirely on the severity of his punishment. Children in those days were not allowed to complain to parents of the unreasonable severity of teachers. During the next six years, I was under the care of four or five other teachers, in neighboring districts, but the general character and aims of the schools were the same, though the teachers were better qualified and more humane.

During these years, up to 1807, I do not remember to have had and scarcely to have seen an arithmetic, a map, a geography, nor to have heard an allusion to a grammar. I do not think that in these various schools one pupil was taught to read well, to write a good hand, nor to make the calculations constantly needed in business. There was no effort to make the pupil to think, to reason, to enjoy the acquisition of knowledge; indeed, scarcely any thing deserving the name was the subject of instruction.

There was, in none of these schools, any aim at culture—literary, moral, or religious. No one of these teachers was a good reader, nor seemed to have any idea of good reading, nor of being useful to his pupils in that respect. None seemed to have any idea of spelling, nor of communicating a knowledge of it, except by an endless drill in the columns of the spelling-book. None thought of arithmetic as a practical matter, designed for daily use in active life. None of these teachers aimed to give his pupils any grammatical knowledge of language, nor any geographical or historical knowledge of the country. None of them used any branch of study as a means of mental discipline, nor ever seemed to have a conception of such an idea. The only object of the teacher

seemed to be, to get his scanty wages for three or six months, and the object of the parents seemed to be, to furnish their children a scant supply of instruction in spelling, reading, writing, and the elementary rules of arithmetic. Teachers and parents succeeded in securing about all they aimed at.

In 1807 I became a pupil in the "New Warren Academy" in Morristown, then under the direction of James Stevenson, a Scotchman. He was a scholar and a kind and Christian gentleman. The school was both English and classical, and may be justly regarded as a favorable type of the best schools of that day.

In the English department, the simplest elementary branches received but little attention.

Writing was well taught by an accomplished master.

Arithmetic was taught from Dilworth, a book making no allusion to a decimal currency, and having little or no adaptation to the ordinary requirements of business. If we reached the "Rule of Three," we were quite gratified with our attainments. Most of us came short of it. Arithmetic was taught here about as ineffectually as in other schools. When a boy left school and was required to make almost any simple business calculation, he failed, giving the stereotyped reason, "There a'nt no such sums in my book."

Reading was taught mechanically. I do not remember an effort, in those days, to assist the pupil to understand, to feel, nor to express the sentiment he was uttering. The principal books used by the reading classes were Bingham's *American Preceptor*, and Scott's *Lessons*.*

English Grammar could hardly be said to be taught in this school. I doubt whether the teacher in the English department knew any thing about it. I procured "Murray's Abridgment" and committed it several times over, but was not taught any thing of the mystery of parsing. I think my case was not exceptional. I well remember inquiring of a cousin who attended a ladies' school, "how far she was in grammar?" and she replied that "she had committed the grammar seven or eight times through, but had not commenced parsing yet."

Geography was not taught. I think there was neither book, map, nor globe in the school.

Book-keeping.—This was a branch taught at the Academy by a master who was a good book-keeper, but who had no proper ideas of teaching. As one of the advanced pupils I was set to copying "Jackson's Italian Method of Book-keeping," and I think employed a very considerable part of six months at this work without any instruction which gave me the slightest idea of opening, journalizing, balancing, or closing. As my destination was (as I supposed) for business, I was ambitious to learn, but in the six months acquired less real knowledge of the subject than is now easily communicated in one week.

Such I believe is a just view of the best English school existing at that time in that part of New Jersey. History, Geometry, Higher Mathematics, and numerous other branches now successfully taught, had no place in our scanty curriculum.

In 1809 I was promoted to the classical department, and commenced the study of Latin. In this department English studies also received some attention. Reading was taught in Scott's *Lessons*, without an effort at naturalness

* The "Child's Instructor" was used to a very limited extent. It was the only book I saw in those days prepared expressly for beginners.

or propriety. Mathematics, so far as I can recollect, did not go beyond Dilworth. English Grammar was considered to be of no use. Latin Grammar was all-sufficient. In Geography a few young men used "Guthrie's New System of Modern Geography," an octavo of perhaps 800 pages, without an atlas.

On the wall hung an old map of Europe, the first wall-map I had ever seen. At that time I had not seen an atlas, and think none intended for schools had been published. We had a Terrestrial Globe, kept for ornament, not for use.

With the scant preparation above indicated, boys were put to studying Latin, and in that the want of proper method and of suitable books was about as great as in the English department. To illustrate my meaning, it is enough for me to say, that I was set to committing the grammar, committed it through, and then commenced again and perhaps went a second time through, without the slightest exercise or instruction in the use of the declensions, or of the conjugations; without any explanation of the agreement of adjectives with their nouns and pronouns; without any explanation of the application of a single rule, or of any thing else belonging to the language. A boy properly taught now, in such a manual as Goodrich's or Andrews' Latin Lessons, gets more accurate knowledge, in the first week of this study, than I acquired by the drudgery of three or perhaps six months. This beginning in Latin was under the supervision of a gentleman of talents, who graduated with distinction at Princeton a few years before. After reading a little of Corderius and some other small book, I was advanced to Caesar's Commentaries, and by the help of hard work and poor instruction got through the first four books, with very little knowledge of the language.

In Morristown there was (and is) another Academy, older and of more extended reputation, at the head of which Samuel Whelpley (of Lenox, Mass.) had stood for many years. In 1809 he was succeeded by his nephew, William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, an excellent scholar, a faithful teacher, and a true gentleman. I entered the Academy early in 1810. The Academy had three departments—Juvenile, English, and Classical. When I entered it, the Classical Department had more than sixty pupils, almost all boarders from New York and the Southern States. There Latin and Greek were taught with critical accuracy and great thoroughness. Although we lacked many useful books, which have since been prepared, yet I think our method of instruction had, in several particulars, a decided advantage over the more modern practice.

1. We were not allowed to use Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary until we had used Tyro for one or two years. Thus we were compelled to become perfectly familiar with the formation and radical meaning of Latin derivatives. To this day I am conscious of the influence of this early and thorough drill.

2. We were drilled in "Mair's Introduction" (to making Latin.) This secured a most intimate acquaintance with the grammatical construction of sentences. I have seen no book since which seems to me so well calculated to secure that end.

3. In our recitations of Virgil, Horace, Homer, and other classic poets, we were never allowed to translate a sentence, until we had scanned it. To us, poetry was poetry indeed.

With regard to studies other than classical, (in the classical department,) I can not say much to the credit of this loved and useful Institution.

In *Reading*, forty or more would stand up in one class and read a few sen-

tences each, in *Murray's Sequel*. The exercise was merely formal and nearly useless.

In *English Grammar* we did nothing. We had no such class. Latin grammar was all in all.

In *Mathematics* we did almost nothing. Euclid, I think, occasionally received a little attention, but so little that I am in doubt about it.

Composition and declamation were well taught.

To *Geography* we paid no attention. We had no maps and no globes. I remember that I got an extra lesson (in geography) to recite in the English Department, (perhaps in 1811,) in which I used Morse's two large octavos, and his Atlas of sixty-two maps, together I think costing about twenty dollars, a price putting them out of the reach of a great majority of pupils.

The blackboard, now indispensable to the teacher, in so many branches of study, then had no existence.

Such are my recollections and impressions of schools, from the worst to the best, as they were from 1797 to 1812. Having been from that time to the present constantly familiar with schools, (you know I am yet actively engaged in teaching,) I may perhaps without impropriety note some of the points in which the schools of the present day differ from the schools existing at the beginning of the present century. I will notice several particulars under their appropriate heads.

1. *School-houses*.—During our colonial vassalage, our people were few, scattered, and poor. The Revolutionary War of seven years exhausted the resources of the country, and left neither means nor heart for any thing but the supply of the most urgent wants of the body. Mental culture, for the million, was almost entirely out of the question. Hence, school-houses were few and of the cheapest kind. Now in every free State the whole wealth of the land is subject to taxation to furnish houses as good as can be desired.

2. *Teachers*.—The men of the generation immediately succeeding the Revolution enjoyed but slender advantages of education; and teaching was so poorly paid, that educated men were seldom tempted to seek it as an employment. Hence, the teachers in our farming districts were generally ignorant, uncultivated, and often intemperate foreigners. Now teaching is a profession. Wealth without stint is expended on Schools, High Schools, Normal Schools, Institutes, Colleges, and Universities for the education of young men and young women, and the best talents in the land find teaching both congenial and remunerative.

3. *Books*.—The teacher of the present day can scarcely realize how utterly destitute were our schools of any suitable books. In the first few years of the present century I saw no class of young learners supplied with suitable reading-books, nor did I in those days see any school even half supplied with any arithmetic, grammar, geography, or atlas. Excepting a few Dilworth's Arithmetics, there were no such books to be found in one of twenty of our common schools. Our Academies were but little in advance of the common schools in this respect. Now the only difficulty is, among a multitude that are good to select the best.

4. *School Apparatus*.—Rough, dark, unruled paper was used for writing.*

* Each pupil was furnished with a rule, and plummet attached to it, with which he ruled his paper, generally in a very slovenly and irregular way.

There were no blackboards, no geometrical figures, no globes. In short, I might almost say, "there was nothing to do, and nothing to do it with."

5. *Teaching* was not then a profession. It was the accidental employment for three months in the year of some useless drone unfit for any thing else. Now untold amounts of wealth are consecrated to the educating and training the best intellects in the land for the business of teaching.

6. *The work performed.*—The teacher of those days seemed to have no definite ideas of the proper method of communicating instruction. The best educated teachers, in our best schools, seem to me, as I look back fifty years or more, to have had no object, to have had no plan, to have had little or no acquaintance with the mind, or the capabilities of the pupil. They seem to me not to have known how to communicate knowledge. They had no idea of analyzing a subject and helping the pupil to comprehend each of the parts. They had not made themselves acquainted with the faculties of the human mind, and never inquired which could be advantageously employed in early years, nor which must be left for later efforts. They seem to have had no idea of presenting a single fact, thought, truth, or idea, to the pupil's mind, and pressing it upon his attention until he fully comprehended it. They had no idea of drill, drill. Hence, poor workmen succeeded easily in making poor scholars.

Now teaching is a science. It is reduced to principles; and the well-instructed teacher, in a commodious house, with excellent books, with abundant apparatus, with a clear comprehension of the object he aims at, assisted by a proper division of labor among skillful subordinates, with head and heart full of his work, may expect to be a constant blessing to the boys and girls of this generation, and to be abundantly successful in preparing them to discharge intelligently the duties of the men and women of the next.

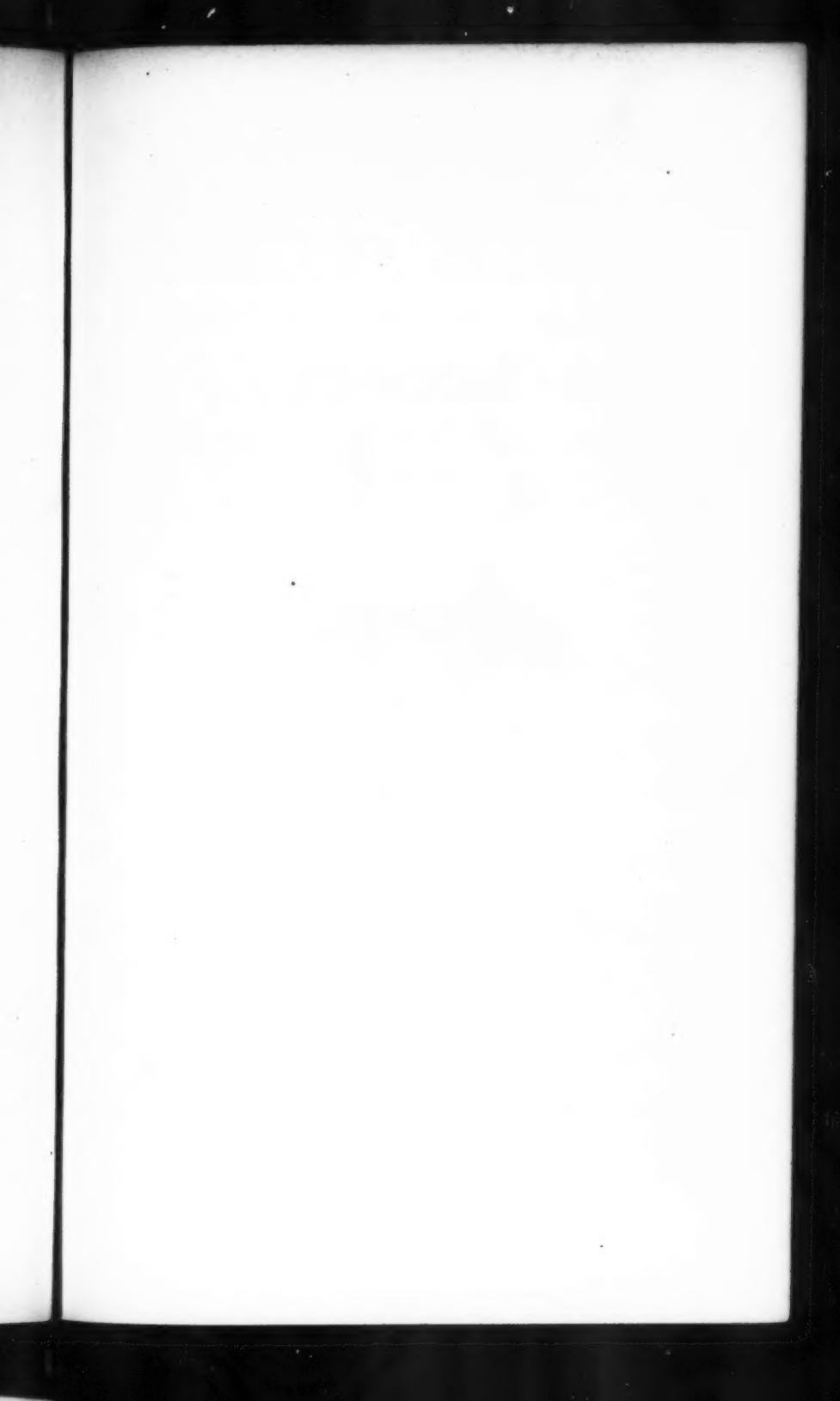
Yours truly,

NATHAN HEDGES.

Newark, N. J., August, 1865.

[To the above valuable communication we add a few paragraphs from another letter, which we have received from Mr. Hedges, and which we intend to print entire.—*Editor.*]

In view of the long course of years that I have spent in teaching, (now a full half-century,) people often wonder that I am not *worn out*. My experience may be useful, not only to young teachers, but to others whose occupation depends more on the brain than on muscle. During the first fifteen years or more after I commenced teaching I was slender, and had much less than an average amount of bodily vigor. From 1821 to 1827 I had very little opportunity for out-door employment. In school I taught earnestly; out of school I studied or read constantly, and my bodily health and strength ran down to the lowest point. I was scarcely able to walk the street, or to go up a stairway to my school-room. In 1827 I purchased about four acres of ground a little distance from my school-room. I at once devoted my hours, not required in school, to cheerful and earnest out-door labor. When in school I thought of nothing else. When I left the room I left all its cares behind. I devoted my time and mind to horticulture, and to all those employments which a *home* calls for, and which keep the mind and body in cheerful, healthful exercise, and from that time to this (excepting a single day, due to my own imprudence) I have never been absent from school an hour from lack of health. No teacher works more earnestly, yet I never feel weariness at the end of the day, at the end of the week, nor at the end of the year. Half of the best graduates of our colleges, and more than half of the best graduates of Ladies' Schools, are disabled, entirely unfitted for usefulness, by the overtaking the brain and neglecting other parts of the body.





Eng^d by Geo E. Perine & Co. N.Y.

Isaiah Peckham

PROF. ISAIAH PECKHAM.
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.
NEWARK, N. J.

ENGRAVED FOR BARNARD'S AM. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.



ISAAH PECKHAM.

ISAAH PECKHAM was born, November 9th, 1823, near Binghamton, New York. His parents were both from New England, and his father, though mainly engaged in farming, was for many years a successful teacher of common schools during successive winter terms, acquiring considerable reputation in his neighborhood as a ready and skillful mathematician. The influences of his home were favorable to intellectual development, and to these were added the advantages of good district-schools, in which he always took high rank. On his seventeenth birthday he assumed the charge of a large district-school, in which many of the pupils were considerably older than himself, and one had herself been a teacher for several successive summer terms, yet he passed successfully through the ordeal. After teaching three terms, however, an ardent desire to extend his own education more rapidly led him to become a student at the Binghamton Academy, which was in a high state of efficiency under the principalship of Mr. E. M. Rollo. He highly appreciated the advantages here afforded him, and eagerly availed himself of them; and here, so far as school life was concerned, his scholastic course was completed. In point of fact, however, his life-long habits as a student have enabled him to make extensive subsequent acquisitions, and to attain by personal effort to that breadth and completeness of culture which belong to a liberal education.

In 1845 he became a tutor in the family of Mr. David Ripley of Nichols, Tioga county, New York, and removed with the family the same year to Newark, N. J., where for some months he assumed the foremanship of one department of Mr. Ripley's business. He subsequently took charge for one year of the public school at the village of Irvington, N. J., but married and again returned for a short time to the business position before mentioned. In 1849 he accepted the principalship of the Lock Street Grammar School of Newark, then just opened. His administration here was very successful, and he remained about five years, resigning in 1854, at the solicitation of Mr. David Ripley and other benevolent gentlemen, to accept the superintendency of the Newark "Industrial Schools," institutions analogous to the "Ragged Schools" of England, and designed to reach and elevate the very lowest class of children. Three of these schools were organized, in different parts of the city, under his supervision, and have ever since remained in successful operation—the moral and industrial departments flourishing under the fostering care of contemporaneously-formed associations of benevolent ladies, and the scholastic department under that of the Board of Education. For about one year, commencing with September, 1853, Mr. Peckham edited the educational department of the "*Life Boat and Literary Standard*," the only educational organ ever published in New Jersey; and on its discontinuance he became editor of the New Jersey department in the New York Teacher.

When the high school edifice of Newark was completed in the Autumn of the year 1854, and the first head of the institution was to be selected, the Committee on Teachers of the Board of Education unanimously recommended Mr. Peckham for the principalship, and he was, with the same unanimity, elected by the Board. He spent the month of December in visiting the public schools of other cities, principally those of Boston, with a view of collecting information likely to prove serviceable in his new position, and, in January, 1855, the High

School of Newark was opened under his care, with a corps of ten teachers and nearly four hundred pupils. In April following, the Newark Saturday Normal School was opened—designed for the improvement and education of teachers, and meeting in the High School building on Saturday morning of each week. Mr. Peckham was elected by the Board to the principalship of this institution also, and from it have been drawn nearly all the teachers subsequently employed in the schools of the city.

In August, 1856, Mr. Peckham was elected for one year to the presidency of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association—an organization of which he had been one of the originators, and of which he has always been one of the most active promoters. In the same month he received from the University of Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, the honorary degree of A. M.

In March, 1854, the Legislature of New Jersey had passed an act to establish Teachers' Institutes in every county of the State. For the first year these were conducted mainly by Dr. C. C. Hoagland, and for the next two by Rev. John B. Thompson; but from that time to the present, no educator of the State has been so largely engaged in conducting them as Mr. Peckham. His vacations, for many years past, have been almost exclusively occupied in this work.

In June, 1866, finding that these multifarious labors were beginning to tell unfavorably upon his health, and believing that a change of employment was in consequence demanded, he resigned the principalship of both the High School and the City Normal School, and detached himself entirely from all official connection with the work of education, to accept the proffer of the General Agency for New Jersey of the Continental Life Insurance Company of New York.

Mr. Peckham had been connected with the High School nearly twelve years, during which period upwards of two thousand pupils had been in attendance at the institution; one thousand and seventy-four having been received into the Male Department, and one thousand one hundred and seventeen into the Female. "If," said Superintendent George B. Sears, in his last annual report,—“if it were necessary to produce any evidence of the value of this institution to the community, it would seem to be sufficient to point to the roll of its graduates. From the female department have gone forth hundreds capable of adorning any profession or position within the reach of woman. * * * From the male department have gone forth hundreds of young men who look from their positions of usefulness upon the High School as their *alma mater*, and who annually come together to celebrate the victories here achieved, and to invoke blessings upon the heads of those who inaugurated and who have so liberally sustained this department of our educational system.”

IOWA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE earliest State Association originated in a call which appeared in the "*Iowa Journal of Education*" in March, 1854, first suggested by Rev. Jerome Allen, Principal of Maquoketa Academy, and signed by a score of most prominent teachers in the State. The convention met at Muscatine on the 10th of May, 1854, D. F. Wells was appointed chairman, and the Association was organized by the adoption of a constitution and the election of officers, as follows:—Hon. J. A. Parvin, *President*; Rev. D. Lane, *Vice President*; D. Franklin Wells and Rev. S. Newbury, *Secretaries*; G. W. Drake, *Treasurer*; S. Newbury, G. B. Denison, Rev. W. W. Woods, Rev. D. S. Sheldon, and Rev. H. K. Edson, *Executive Committee*. Little of other business was done. A second meeting was held at Iowa City, December 27th, of the same year, at which several resolutions relative to Teachers' Institutes and graded schools were discussed, and addresses were delivered by the President, upon the "*Necessity of Universal Education*," and by Prof. Jerome Allen, on the "*Utility of Chemistry*." The attendance was but small, and as the meeting appointed to be held at Davenport, September 4th, 1855, proved a failure, nothing more was attempted by this organization.

A call for a second convention was made early in 1856 by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. James D. Eads, which assembled at Iowa City on the 16th of June. James L. Enos was elected chairman and D. F. Wells, secretary of the convention, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to organize under the constitution of the first association. The organization of a new association was, however, decided upon, and a constitution was reported by Prof. Von Valkenburg of the Normal Department of the State University, which was adopted. An address was delivered by Mrs. C. V. Wait of Chicago, and resolutions passed in favor of the establishment of a Teachers' Journal, for which a board of editors was appointed.

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.—At Muscatine, October 7th, 1856.

At this meeting the following officers were elected:—D. F. Wells, *Pres.* Jerome Allen, G. W. Drake, J. F. Sanford, W. D. Wilson, and Rev. D. Lane, *Vice Pres.* J. L. Enos and F. Humphreys, *Sec.* G. B. Denison, *Treas.* D. F. Wells, C. C. Childs, F. Humphreys, J. H. Sanders, and Samuel McNutt, *Ex. Com.* The Executive Committee were authorized, at their discretion, to commence the publication of a Teachers' Journal. The first number of the "*Voice of Iowa*" accordingly appeared in January following, under the editorship of J. L. Enos, by whom the journal was continued for two years.

A semi-annual meeting was held at Dubuque, April 15th, 1857. The sessions were spent mainly in the discussion of methods of teaching, addresses were delivered by the President and others, and resolutions were adopted in relation to a State Reform School, Phonetics, &c.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Iowa City, August 11th, 1857. Addresses were delivered by Prof. W. E. Ijams, on "*The Claims of Patriotism and Humanity upon the American Instructor*;" by Prof. J. M. Stone, on "*The Motives that should Sustain the Teacher in his Profession*;" and by Prof. R. Weiser, on "*The School—its Origin, Progress, and Importance*." An essay was read by C. C. Nestlerode, on "*The Duty of the State to Educate her Children*," and numerous resolutions were passed upon Teachers' Institutes, the use of the Bible in schools, a revision of the school law, graded schools, and other diverse subjects. C. C. Nestlerode was elected President, and Messrs. J. L. Enos, A. S. Kiasell, D. F. Wells, L. H. Bugbee, and Miss M. M. Lyon, Executive Committee.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Davenport, August 7th, 8th, and 9th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by C. C. Nestlerode, on "*The Educational Condition of the State*;" by L. O. Stevens, on "*Systematic Education*;" and by F. Humphreys, on "*The Claims of the State University and its Relations to the Educational Interests of the State*." A report was made in favor of memorializing the Legislature with reference to establishing a Reform School for juvenile offenders, and a resolution was also adopted in relation to the need of a Normal School exclusively for the education and training of teachers for the schools of the State. A large increase was made to the subscription list of the "*Voice of Iowa*."

F. Humphreys was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, C. C. Childs, S. H. Weller, J. R. Doig, and M. B. Beals, Executive Committee, and appointments were also made of persons to conduct Institutes in the northern and southern sections of the State.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Washington, August 23d to 25th, 1859. This meeting was well attended and conducted with much spirit. Addresses were given by the President, on "*The Condition of the Public Schools of the State*;" by Rev. S. S. Howe, on "*The Light Literature of the Age*;" by Rev. M. K. Cross, on "*Sectarianism in Schools*;" and by Prof. A. A. Griffith, on "*Elocution and Reading*." Essays by S. H. Weller, on "*The Co-education of the Sexes*," and by Dr. Maynard, on "*The Duties of District School Directors*." Some important resolutions and reports were adopted, relating to a State truant law, the school laws, the necessity of a State Normal School, music and Bible reading in schools, County Institutes, &c.

Prof. D. F. Wells was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, J. R. Doig, M. B. Beales, S. H. Weller, and J. H. Sanders, Executive Committee.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Tipton, August 28th to 31st, 1860. Addresses were delivered by the President, upon "*Self Culture and the Means of Obtaining it*;" by C. E. Hovey, upon "*How can Teachers Acquire and Maintain Respectability and Influence as Citizens?*" by Thomas H. Benton, Jr., on the "*Qualifications of Teachers*;" and by Hon. James Harlan. Essays were also read by Miss L. Humphrey, upon "*How shall we Teach?*" and by Miss Lizzie S. Gregg, on "*Elegance of Diction*." Reports were made by M. Ingalls, on "*Prizes in Schools*;" by L. H. Smith, on "*English Grammar*;" by Mrs. M. A. McGonegal, on "*The Range of Studies demanded by our Present School System*;" by William Reynolds, on "*The History of Education and Educational Text-books*," and upon a "*State Agency*;" by E. D. Jones, on "*Music*;" by J. L. Enos, on "*The Power of the Teacher and how to use it*;" by A. S. Kissell, on "*The Control of the Journal by the Teachers of the State*;" and by C. C. Nestlerode, on a "*Reform School for Juvenile Offenders*," and upon a "*County Superintendency*."

A. S. Kissell was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, E. Y. Lane, M. Ingalls, J. W. Borland, and J. A. Young, Executive Committee. This meeting was marked by a still increased attendance and extended interest on the part of the teachers of the State.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Mustatine, August 23d, 1861. Addresses were delivered by the President upon "*Sphere of Associations*;" by Prof. Butler, of Tennessee, —; by Prof. O. M. Spencer, of State University, on "*The Teacher's Mission*;" by Dr. Totten, President State University, on "*Progressive Education*."

Essays were read by Dr. Sherman, of Muscatine, on the "*Anatomy of the Human Eye*;" by Mr. Geerdts, of Davenport, on "*Intuitive Instruction*;" by Miss Sallie Bonsall, on "*Teachers should be True Democrats*."

Reports were made by Prof. T. S. Parvin, on "*State School Fund*;" by M. Ingalls, on "*School Officers*;" by Mr. Tooke, on "*Increased Importance of Continuing our Public Schools*;" by Rev. H. K. Edson, on "*Normal Classes*;" by C. F. Chase, of Chicago, on "*Reformatory Education*;" by Conis, on "*Visiting Power of County Superintendents*," "*Competency and Permanency of Teachers*," "*School Houses*," "*Normal Schools*," "*Common School Libraries*," &c.

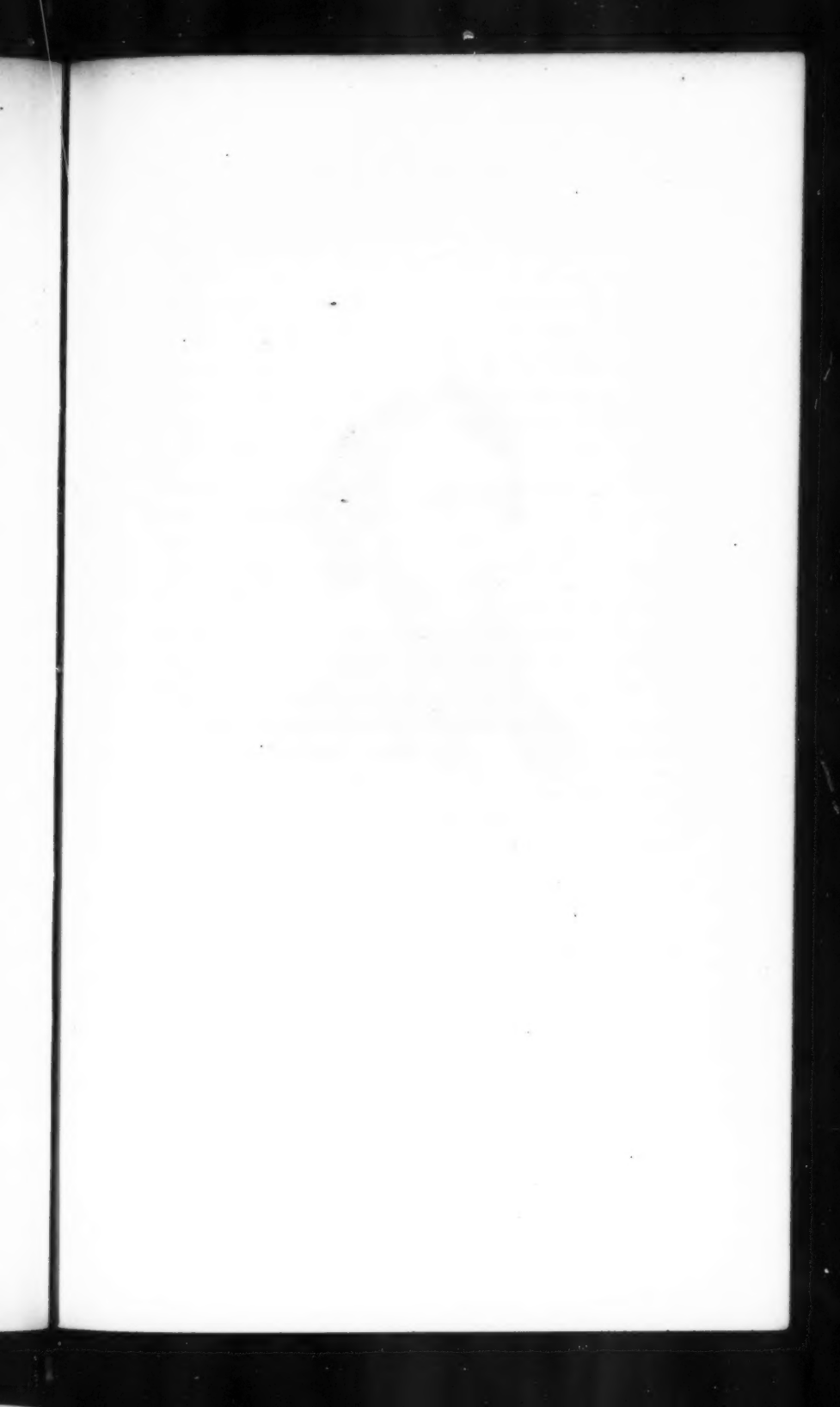
OFFICERS FOR THE ENSUING YEAR.—*President*; C. C. Nestlerode, of Cedar County. *Vice Presidents*; H. K. Edson, Amos Dean, L. F. Parker, D. H. Goodno, and S. M. Fellows. *Recording Secretary*; W. O. Hiskoy. *Treasurer*; George B. Denison. *Executive Committee*; A. S. Kissell, D. F. Wells, S. F. Cooper, F. Y. Lane, and M. K. Cross.

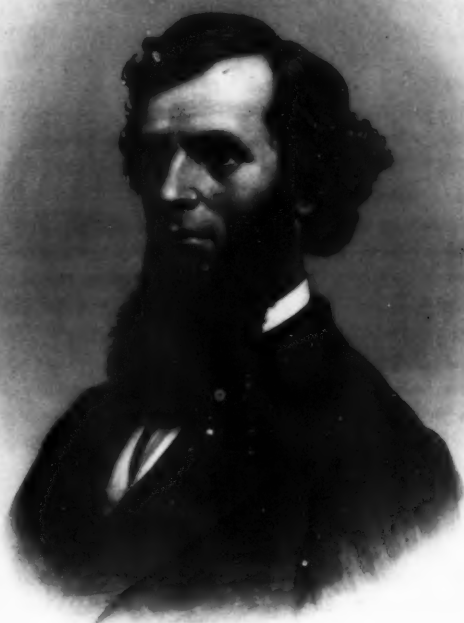
SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—Mount Pleasant, August 19th, to 22d, 1862. Addresses were delivered by the President; by H. K. Edson, on "*School Discipline*;" by Rev. Wm. Salter, of Burlington, "*Two Weeks in Italy*;" by Prof. V. R. Leonard, of University, "*Why should Mathematical Studies be required of the Student, and at what Age*;" by Rev. Mr. K. Cross, "*Education of the Heart and Conscience*;" by W. H. Wells, of Chicago, on "*Philosophy of Education*."

Discussions on "*State Agency*," "*System of State Examination*," "*Object Teaching*," "*Physical Exercise in Schools*," &c.

OFFICERS FOR ENSUING YEAR.—*President*; Rev. M. K. Cross, Tipton, Cedar County. *Vice Presidents*; L. M. Hastings, J. E. Dow, G. F. Carpenter, J. D. Hornby, and Mrs. M. E. Culbertson. *Recording Secretary*; R. Hubbard. *Corresponding Secretary*; Miss E. W. Berry. *Treasurer*; Miss L. L. Newton.

[We have not been able to obtain the proceedings of the Annual Meetings for 1863 and 1864.]





Engraved by John Currier 1862

Franklin Wells.



IOWA EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

DAVID FRANKLIN WELLS, A. M.

DAVID FRANKLIN WELLS, first President of the Iowa State Teachers' Association, was born at Holland Patent, Oneida County, N. Y., June 22d, 1830, and was brought up upon his father's farm in the habits of industry and perseverance that characterize his class, enjoying the advantages of the common school in winter, and for a time attending the academy of his native village. He spent one winter as clerk in a country store, but commenced teaching at the age of nineteen in a district school with a salary of twelve dollars a month, "boarding around." His second school was at Trenton Falls, N. J., after which he entered the State Normal School at Albany, borrowing money to pay his expenses, where he graduated in 1852. He has since been constantly engaged in teaching, first at Barrytown, then at Tarrytown on the Hudson, and in 1853 as principal of a public school at Muscatine, Iowa. After organizing and grading this school he conducted it most successfully until August, 1856, when he accepted the professorship of the Theory and Practice of Teaching in the State University. His success in this position has been remarkable, and has clearly demonstrated that such a department wisely conducted can accomplish the professional training of teachers as well as an independent Normal School.

Mr. Wells has always been active in Teachers' Institutes within the State and in lecturing upon educational subjects. He was member and officer of the first State Association in 1854, and was elected President of the present association in 1855, and again in 1859, and it was mainly by his exertions that the "*Voice of Iowa*," the first organ of the association, was established.

REV. MOSES KIMBALL CROSS, A. M.

MOSES KIMBALL CROSS was born September 24th, 1812, in Danvers, Mass. His interest in study was specially awakened at the age of seventeen under the instruction of Master John Batchelder, for many years a successful teacher in the schools of Lynn. He commenced teaching the next year at Topsfield, and soon after entered upon a course of regular study, preparing for college principally at Phillips Academy, Andover, and graduating at Amherst in 1838, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1841. He was first settled in Palmer, Mass., in 1842, but in 1855 removed to Tipton, Iowa. During this time he has always taken special interest in teachers and schools, and has kept himself familiar and intimate with them, striving to help and encourage them whenever it was in his power. He has been almost constantly connected with town school committees, has attended meetings of Associations and Institutes, has delivered educational lectures, and contributed frequently to the educational journals. He was elected President of the State Association in 1863.

REV. H. K. EDSON, A. M.

HENRY KINGMAN EDSON was born in Hadley, Mass., October 5th, 1822. He fitted for college at the Hopkins Academy in his native town, of which, after graduation at Amherst in 1844, he was principal until 1849. He now for two years pursued his theological studies at the Andover and Union Seminaries. His success in teaching and the growing conviction of the greatness of the work, induced a change in his choice of a profession. In 1852 he became principal of the academy at Denmark, Iowa, where he has since labored with a care that has won him success, and with an earnestness in the common cause of education that has tended to make the profession esteemed and honorable in the popular estimation.

ORAN FAVILLE, A. M.

ORAN FAVILLE was born Oct. 13, 1817, at Manheim, Herkimer County, N. Y. He was brought up upon a farm and educated at the district schools, but having access to a small public library he was enabled to gratify a taste for reading and was prompted to higher things. He commenced teaching in the winter of 1834-5, and was engaged in schools in the following winters, until 1838, when he removed to Ohio, where he spent two years in teaching and in preparatory study at Granville College. He afterward studied two years at the Fairfield Academy in his native town, with intervals of teaching, and entered the Junior Class in Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., in 1842. After graduation he taught two years in the Oneida Conference Seminary at Cazenovia, N. Y., six years in the Troy Conference Seminary at West Poughkeepsie, Vt., and the next year in McKendree College at Lebanon, Ill. In 1853 he took charge of the Wesleyan Female College at Delaware, Ohio, but ill-health compelling him to resign his profession, he removed in 1855 to Iowa and commenced frontier life as a farmer in Mitchell County.

In Oct., 1857, Mr. Faville was elected Lieutenant Governor, and *ex officio* President of the State Board of Education, then newly organized. At its first session, in Dec., 1858, the Board adopted the main features of the present system of public instruction. In April, 1863, he became the acting Secretary of the Board, and in January following was appointed its Secretary by the Governor. In March, 1864, he was elected by the Legislature Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Board of Education having been abolished. In addition to his educational labors in the school and in public office, Mr. Faville has delivered various addresses at Teachers' Institutes and Associations, several of which have been published.

NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THERE have been few educational conventions and early associations in the State of New Hampshire that have left a record. Two or three County Lyceum Associations were formed in 1830-31 under the personal influence of Josiah Holbrook, but they probably scarcely survived their organization. In 1836, however, the "*Cheshire County Common School Association*" was organized, which is still in existence and merits further notice. In this county the friends of education had, as early as 1819-21, been unusually active for the good of common schools, among whom were Levi W. Leonard, D. D., Rev. Z. S. Barstow, Salma Hale, Daniel Bradford, and Joel Parker. Some years later a county school convention was held in Keene on the 4th of July, which was numerously attended, and addressed by Asahel H. Bennett, Esq., and an interesting letter was read from Dr. Ebenezer Morse of Walpole. The County Association was formed at a convention of teachers and others at Keene on the 18th Nov., 1836, with the design "to collect and diffuse such information as shall have a tendency to awaken a greater interest in common schools and improve the qualifications of teachers." Among its early presidents were Hon. Salma Hale, Rev. Mr. Barstow, Dr. L. W. Leonard, Rev. A. A. Livermore, and Dr. James Batcheller. Among the measures recommended at the first meeting were the appointment of a State School Commissioner by the Legislature, and the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary. It met annually for addresses and discussions until 1841, since which time its meetings have been semi-annual.

In answer to a call made by this Association, a State Convention was held at Concord, June 7th, 1843; S. E. Coues, Esq., presiding. The proceedings are of interest as showing the prevalent distrust in the efficacy of Associations and little faith in the virtues of simple legislation. The desired object was stated to be to take such measures as should create, throughout the State, an interest in common schools, and to effect this end the formation of a State Association

was proposed, an address to the people, and a petition to the Legislature for an act requiring reports from all the schools to the Secretary of State. The feeling of the meeting was nearly expressed by Rev. P. S. Ten Broeck, of Concord; "He thought we should not succeed with legislation. The good is to be done by ourselves. That a convention was preferable to an association. If we should not succeed, we should die more respectably as a convention than as an organized association. That meetings on the subject over the State were to accomplish the object." Nevertheless, a committee was appointed (consisting of Hon. Levi Woodbury, Rev. E. Worth, Rev. W. H. Moore, Chandler E. Potter, and Hon. Franklin Pierce,) to petition the Legislature; a second (consisting of C. J. Fox, Rev. N. Bouton, and Rev. A. A. Livermore,) to prepare an address; and in place of organizing an "Association," a series of annual "Conventions" was provided for, under the management of an Executive Committee, consisting of Messrs. J. Stevens, Jr., Rev. E. Worth, Rev. M. G. Thomas, Rev. W. H. Moore, Dr. S. Cummings, and Parker Noyes. It is uncertain how many of these proposed conventions were subsequently held. At the meeting at Concord two years afterwards, of which Salma Hale was president, very able and valuable essays were read by Prof. E. D. Sanborn upon the "*Examination of Teachers*," by Rev. Mr. Leonard upon the operation of the public schools of Dublin, Cheshire Co., and by Rev. W. H. Moore upon the legislative measures most requisite for the improvement of the common schools. Addresses were delivered by Hon. Levi Woodbury, Prof. Brooks, of Boston, Horace Mann, and William B. Fowle, discussions followed, the usual committee was appointed for memorializing the Legislature, and a Central Committee to make arrangements for the next Convention.

In April, 1845, the first "*Teachers' Institute*" was held, under the auspices of the Chester Co. Association, and was continued annually for several years, the officers being *ex officio* directors of the Institute. Previous to this, however, a similar Association had been formed in Hillsboro' County, organized in April, 1840, which proved a most active and effective body. Among its presidents were Rev. Abiel Abbott, D. D., Rev. Humphrey Moore, S. K. Livermore, Rev. S. T. Allen, and Rev. Samuel Lee. Its meetings were semi-annual. As a result of its discussion of the subject of Normal Schools, in 1845, the "*Merrimack Normal Institute*" was established at Reed's Ferry under the charge of Prof. William Russell. In October, 1846, a movement was also commenced in favor of a Teachers' Institute, which was shortly afterwards incorporated, and, in 1848, was





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united with the Association into one organization. In response to repeated memorials from these Associations and Conventions, the Legislature of June, 1846, established the office of State Commissioner of Common Schools, and authorized towns to assess a special tax for the support of Institutes. In 1850 this office was abolished and that of County Commissioner substituted, which officer should take charge of the Teachers' Institutes. A conflict of authorities arose in Hillsboro' County between the Commissioner and the Association upon this point, resulting in the holding of two sets of Institutes, but the Legislature of 1851 revising the Statute and recognizing the Commissioner as its only agent, the Association withdrew from the field and in November, 1852, the organization was dissolved.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION.

THE STATE ASSOCIATION had its first suggestion in 1853 in the Manchester Association of Teachers, of which Jonathan Tenney, then principal of the High School in that city, was the originator. At the session of the County Institute in the following spring the subject was favorably received, and at an informal meeting of teachers, a convention for the purpose of effecting an organization was unanimously agreed upon and measures taken to elicit the opinion and secure the coöperation of teachers in other sections. Institutes and individual teachers responded in a similar spirit. A call was accordingly issued in May by a committee of which Jonathan Tenney was chairman, and the convention met at Concord on the 15th of June, 1854. It was largely attended by practical teachers from all parts of the state. Cyrus S. Richards was appointed President; H. E. Sawyer, B. F. Wallace, and G. S. Barnes, Vice Presidents; and Harry Brickett and M. C. Stebbins, Secretaries. A Constitution was reported by a committee consisting of Messrs. Tenney, Morse, Hoyt, T. Baldwin, and Stebbins, which, embracing the usual provisions, was adopted and the organization perfected by the election of the following officers:—Prof. John S. Woodman, *Pres.*; A. M. Payson, M. L. Morse, A. H. Bennett, J. B. Clark, J. N. Putnam, E. Knight, W. A. Webster, L. C. Chapin, E. T. Rowe, and D. A. Rowe, *Vice Pres.*; J. Tenney, and C. S. Richards, *Sec's.*; G. S. Barnes, *Treas.*; H. Brickett, B. F. Wallace, M. C. Stebbins, W. W. Bailey, T. O. Norris, J. G. Hoyt, and H. E. Sawyer, *Counselors.* Addresses were afterwards delivered by William H. Wells, on the "*Progress of Astronomy*;" by Benjamin Greenleaf, on "*School Order and Discipline*;" by Rev. Warren Burton, on the "*Relation*"

of *Parents to Teachers*;" and by J. G. Hoyt, on "*Indications of Progress in Letters and Art*."

In July, 1854, the Association was incorporated by Act of the State Legislature.

The FIRST ANNUAL SESSION was held at Nashua, Nov. 27th and 28th, 1854. Lectures, essays, and reports were delivered by Elihu T. Rowe, on "*Teachers' Institutes as they are and as they should be*;" by Rev. Daniel March, on "*How much and what kind of an Education does the State owe to its Citizens—or Citizens to themselves?*" by Prof. William Russell, on the "*Expediency of constituting the vocation of Teaching a distinct Profession*;" by Prof. E. D. Sanborn, on the question, "*Are our Colleges sufficiently progressive in the Subjects, Length, and Thoroughness, and Practical Character of their courses of Study?*" and by Rev. A. B. Muzzey, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools*." A code of By-Laws was adopted, and committees were appointed to report upon Mr. Russell's plan for making teaching a more distinct profession; upon publishing a State Educational Journal; upon a certificate of membership; and upon a seal for the corporation. On motion of Mr. Tenney the following resolution was adopted:—

That we, the teachers of this Association, believe the Bible to be the cornerstone of all domestic, social, national and philanthropic virtue, and that we utterly deprecate and will steadfastly oppose any and all efforts of any man or class of men to keep it from our schools as a book of daily reading and reference; and we further believe, faithful, moral, in connection with thorough intellectual instruction, to be the highest function and most solemn duty of the teacher's office.

A meeting of the Association was held at Manchester, May 11th and 12th, 1855, in accordance with a vote of the previous session, for the purpose of acting upon the reports of committees and other subjects of a practical character. The following Reports were made:—by E. T. Quimby, upon the "*Seal of the Association*;" by W. H. Ward, upon a "*State Teachers' Journal*;" by C. S. Richards, upon "*Greater Uniformity in the Terms and Vacations of Academies and Colleges*;" by S. Upton, on "*State Appropriation in Aid of the Association*;" by H. E. Sawyer, on "*Certificates of Membership*;" by J. Tenney, on "*Town Supervision of Schools*," and on "*Publishing the Lectures and Transactions*;" by Calvin Cutter, M. D., on "*State Supervision of Schools*;" by C. S. Richards, on a "*State Normal School*;" by I. H. Nutting, on "*Tuition in Academies and other Schools*;" by B. F. Wallace, on "*Sending Delegates to other Educational Associations*;" and by W. H. Ward, on "*Employing a State Agent*."

These several reports were freely discussed and many of them were afterwards printed in the local papers and became the germ of much of the after educational progress in the State.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Great Falls, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1855. Lectures or addresses were delivered by Rev. Ezra E. Adams, on the "*Mission of the Scholar*;" by S. J. Pike, on the "*Democratic Element in School Government*;" by Jonathan Tenney, Secretary of the State Board, on a "*State Normal School*;" and by Dr. M. N. Root, a poem on the "*Teacher's Offering, its Incense, its Reward*." The prominent subjects of discussion were Teachers' Institutes and a State Normal School, and it was voted that the "Normal School Committee" should prepare circulars and subscription papers for the purpose of obtaining money for the support of a Board of Instruction for the social training of teachers in the State, and Mr. Tenney, Chairman of the committee, was authorized to act as agent for the same object. Before the adjournment, over \$1,200 were subscribed by the teachers present.

Hon. Jonathan Tenney, Secretary of the State Board of Education, was elected president.

The subject of a State Normal School was now attracting much attention. The Board of Education at a late meeting had passed a resolution urging upon the Legislature the establishment of such an institution, and the State Association now strongly favored the same action, and resolved that it would "raise and pay for the support of a competent Board of Instruction of such a Normal School, the sum of \$2,500 per year, for the term of five years," provided the State Legislature would appropriate a like amount, the Board of Trustees of the school to be selected equally by the Board of Education and by the State Association. Measures were also taken for petitioning the Legislature to make provision for the erection of suitable buildings, &c. The State was now expending \$6,000 a year upon its Teachers' Institutes, and the somewhat prevalent feeling that their efficiency did not correspond with the expense, aided the movement in favor of a Normal School. A bill for its establishment was passed unanimously by the House of Representatives at its next session, but was postponed by the Senate.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Wolfborough, August 12th and 13th, 1856. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Alpheus Crosby, of Boston, on "*A good Common Education*;" by M. C. Stebbins, on the "*Relations of the Press to our Schools*;" by Dr. Charles F. Elliot, on "*A Knowledge of Physical Laws essential to successful*

Teaching;" and by H. Brickett, on "*Reason and Memory*." The report of the State Normal School Committee was made by Mr. Tenney. The Normal School Bill before the Legislature was warmly discussed and its provisions disapproved as not meeting the wants of education in the State. The subject of securing the influence of the Press to the cause of educational reform was also debated at length, and a committee appointed to prepare articles for publication in leading newspapers of the State. The proposition of Rev. W. L. Gage to commence the publication of a monthly Journal of Education was approved. A resolution was also adopted recommending the formation of County and Town Educational Associations.

Jonathan Tenney was reelected president of the Association.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 4th to 6th, 1857. Addresses by H. Brickett, on the "*Motive Power of the School-room*;" by Rev. Lyman Whiting, on the "*Pleasures of School Keeping*;" by M. C. Stebbins, on "*Religious Instruction in the School-room*;" and by N. F. Carter, on the "*Kind of Parental Cooperation needed*."

Most of the discussions and resolutions of this session related to the establishment of a State Journal of Education under the control of the Association. The "*New Hampshire Journal of Education*" which had been commenced by Rev. W. L. Gage in January, 1857, had failed to give satisfaction, and its publication was now assumed by the Association and Henry E. Sawyer of Concord was appointed Resident Editor, assisted by a Board of twelve Associate Editors.

Prof. E. D. Sanborn was elected president.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 3d to 5th, 1858. Addresses and essays by Prof. E. D. Sanborn, on "*Metempsychosis of Thought*;" by J. P. Newell, on "*Thoroughness in the School-room*;" by S. Hayward, on "*Text-books—their Uses and Abuses*;" by H. Brickett, on the "*Best Modes of Teaching Spelling*;" by E. Knight, on "*The Present an Age of Superficiality*;" by C. S. Richards on the "*Importance of more Condensation in our Systems of Education*;" by A. M. Payson, on the "*Causes of Failure in School Government*;" and by G. W. Gardner, on the "*Relative Importance of the Ancient Classics and Scientific Studies in American Education*."

Discussions were held upon "*Methods of Analysis in English Grammar*;" "*School Examinations*;" and upon a "*Systematic Course of Education in our Academies*." Resolutions were adopted

respecting the more efficient organization of teachers as a distinct profession, and a committee was appointed to petition the Legislature for aid in behalf of the Association.

Prof. E. D. Sanborn was reelected president.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 2d to 4th, 1859. Addresses and Essays, by Rev. W. T. Savage, on "*The Family, the Church, the State—their individual and combined Province in educating the Race*;" by E. T. Quimby, on the "*Danger of rendering too much Assistance in teaching*;" by H. L. Boltwood, on the "*Importance of more thorough Study of English Literature*;" and by H. E. Sawyer, on the "*Duty and Right of Community to educate the Young*."

The principal discussion was upon the subject of school superintendence, favoring the appointment of a State Superintendent in addition to the Board of County Commissioners. The merits of the English and Continental systems of Greek and Latin Orthoepey were debated, the prospects of the State Journal reported upon, and a resolution passed respecting obtaining State aid for the Association.

David Crosby of Nashua was elected president.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Manchester, July 31st to Aug. 2d, 1860. Lectures or Essays were delivered by S. Hayward, on "*School Discipline*;" by Hon. J. D. Philbrick, of Boston, on the "*Teachers' Duty of Self-Improvement*;" by E. T. Rowe, on the "*Teachers' Object and his Means of obtaining it*;" by Miss Mary A. Currier, on "*How to become worth more as Teachers*;" and by Miss M. J. Emerson, on "*The Disciplinary and the Ornamental in Female Education*."

Discussions were held upon "*Latin and Greek Orthoepey*;" upon the "*Best Means of interesting Children in Primary Schools*;" upon "*Admitting both Sexes to our Colleges*;" and upon "*How far we should adhere to a definite Course of Study*." Resolutions were also adopted disavowing all responsibility for the contents and character of the first Volume of the School Journal. At this meeting a "*Teachers' League*" was formed in consequence of a resolution recommending that, for the sake of maintaining healthy and strict discipline in the academies of the State, the fact of suspension, separation, or expulsion of any student should constitute a sufficient reason why he should not be received into any other school till such difficulty should be satisfactorily settled and duly certified. In this action were united the principals of many of the Academies of the State as well as of several in Vermont and Massachusetts.

David Crosby was reelected president.

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, Nov. 19th to 21st, 1861. Lectures or essays were delivered, by Benjamin Warner, on "*School Perversions*;" by S. Haywood, a report on "*School Text-books*;" by Miss Lois A. Sartwell, on the "*True Teacher*;" by Rev. B. G. Northrop, of Massachusetts, on the "*Motives to be urged on Pupils*;" by M. A. Cartland, on the "*Best Method of Teaching the English Language*;" by Prof. C. A. Aiken, on "*Scholarship and Patriotism*;" by N. F. Carter, on the "*Ministry of Antagonism*;" and by D. H. Sanborn, on the "*Method of Teaching Geography*."

The action of the previous Legislature in abolishing Teachers' Institutes was discussed, as also the subjects of "*Text-books*," "*School Gymnastics*," "*Spelling*," "*School Government*," and the "*School Journal*." Resolves were passed as a tribute to the memory of Paltiah Brown of Concord, and greetings were interchanged, by telegraph, with the Massachusetts State Association, then in session.

H. E. Sawyer, of Concord, was elected president, and Jonathan Tenney, resident editor of the *Journal of Education*.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Nashua, Nov. 19th to 21st, 1862. Addresses or essays were presented by H. E. Sawyer, on "*Historical Memorials of the N. H. State Teachers' Association*;" by Rev. Elias Nason, on the "*Points which constitute the Accomplishments, Character, Power, and Perfection of the true Lady*;" by A. L. Gerish, on the "*Close of School*;" by S. Hayward, on "*Literary Culture*;" and by G. J. Judkins, on the "*Moral Qualifications of Teachers*."

Discussions were held upon the merits of the new Legislative Bill providing for a system of public school supervision; upon the different methods of teaching geography, penmanship, declamation, and reading; upon the relative prominence to be given by the teacher to mental discipline and the communication of knowledge as the objects of his labors; upon the duties of parents to teachers; the necessity of changes in the present preparatory course for admission to college; and upon school gymnastics and object lessons. Class exercises were conducted by W. A. Hodgden in illustration of methods of teaching vocal music; by J. W. Webster, in school gymnastics; and by H. E. Sawyer, in object teaching. A committee was again appointed to petition for State aid in behalf of the objects of the Association.

Henry E. Sawyer was reelected president.

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Manchester, Nov. 18th to 20th, 1863. Lectures and essays, by Rev. J. H. McCarty, of Providence, on the "*Lights and Shades of the School-room*;" by C. S. Richards, on the "*Progressive Teacher*;" by E. Knight, on "*Teaching Arithmetic*," with illustrations; by S. G. Haley, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools*;" by A. Wood, on "*Veracity and the Methods of teaching it*;" by E. T. Rowe, on the "*Responsibility of the Teacher*;" and by J. Tenney, on the "*Life and Lessons of Moses A. Cartland*."

Discussions were held upon the methods of teaching history, orthography, and penmanship; upon Greek and Latin pronunciation; upon rendering assistance to pupils; the harmonious development of a child's faculties; and the proper answer to the pupil's question, What shall I study? After discussion, also, it was resolved that the teacher's authority over his pupils rightfully extends, in the opinion of the Association, from the time they leave home until they reach home on their return; that "free return tickets" should be given only to enrolled members; that the highest interests of the State demand a wise, generous, and progressive policy on the part of the Legislature in regard to public schools and all other institutions of learning, and that it is the duty of teachers on all proper occasions to advocate and urge the adoption of such a policy, and to labor to secure the election to the Legislature of men who are honestly and boldly in favor of the immediate adoption of such a policy.

Resolutions were passed in memory of the lives and services of M. A. Cartland, John N. Putnam, and Phineas Nichols, members deceased since the previous meeting. A committee was also appointed to solicit State aid. The Association, during the session, attended by invitation the Public School Festival, and visited the Reform School.

Cyrus S. Richards, of Meriden, was elected president.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Fisherville, Nov. 21st to 23d, 1864. Addresses, &c., were delivered by Rev. W. L. Gaylord, on "*The two Expeditions to Roanoke Island*;" by S. W. Mason, of Boston, on "*Gymnastics in our Common Schools*;" by C. C. Coffin, of Massachusetts, on the "*New Heroic Age*;" by E. T. Rowe, on "*What should be aimed at in our Common Schools*;" by Rev. D. E. Adams, on the "*Legitimate Demands of Education on the Suffrages of the State*;" by Rev. C. A. Downs, on "*Physical Geography*;" and by J. Tenney, on "*Some Improvements in Educational Machinery*."

Discussions were held upon methods of teaching reading and declamation; upon what studies are most practical; and upon the best means of conducting recitations, of exciting the interest of parents in the school, and of developing the better traits of the pupil. It was resolved that the pronunciation of Greek and Latin should be in accordance with the principles of our own language, rather than any foreign one. The next session, of November, 1865, was appointed to be held at Keene.

In connection with the sessions of the Association it has been customary to have an introductory address by the president, and to conclude with a social levee. It has also been usual to appoint a committee upon "teachers' places," to aid those disengaged in procuring schools.

The "*New Hampshire Journal of Education*," whose publication was assumed by the Association in August, 1857, was continued until the close of the sixth volume in December, 1862, when the difficulties of the times made a temporary suspension advisable.

The officers of the Association for 1865 are as follows:—

Cyrus S. Richards, *Pres.*; D. Crosby, E. T. Rowe, C. A. Aiken, G. G. Harriman, W. L. Gaylord, A. M. Payson, C. Tabor, S. Hayward, S. W. Buffum, and J. E. Vose; *Vice-Pres.*; W. W. Colburn and Thomas Tash, *Sec's.*; J. E. Ayers, *Treas.*; J. Tenney, A. Wood, E. T. Quimby, H. E. Sawyer, F. G. Clarke, H. C. Bullard, and R. C. Stanley, *Counselors*.

PRESIDENTS OF NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

JOHN S. WOODMAN.

JOHN SMITH WOODMAN was born in Durham, Strafford county, New Hampshire, on the 6th September, 1819. The training and influence of his parents, both remarkable for their intelligence, correct judgment, and good taste, had their legitimate effect in the formation of his character. He was carefully instructed in habits of diligence, order, and economy, and taught to follow with enthusiasm and to excel in whatever was undertaken. In connection with work upon the farm, he attended the usual district-school, and from the age of fourteen to eighteen, at intervals, the academy of South Berwick, Maine, where he fitted for college, encouraged and guided especially by its principal, Stephen Chase, (afterwards professor)—a man of the purest character, of the greatest simplicity and worth, and of extraordinary intellectual ability. Having graduated at Dartmouth in 1842, he went to Charleston, S. C., where he remained for four years, engaged in the study of law and teaching the higher branches some hours daily, in several of the private schools of the city. The following eighteen months were spent in travel in Europe, and after his return, he completed his professional studies at Dover, N. H., and was admitted to the bar in 1848. In 1851 he accepted the professorship of Mathematics in Dartmouth College, but in 1855 resigned, and resumed the practice of law in Boston until the following year, when the professorship of Civil Engineering in the Chandler Scientific Department of Dartmouth College was offered to him, which position he still retains.

Prof. Woodman was School Commissioner of Strafford county for 1850, and Secretary of the first Board of Education, preparing the first Annual Report, in 1851. For the next three years he was School Commissioner for Grafton county and as such conducted frequent sessions of the County Teachers' Institute. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association at its organization in 1854, and in the following year. His articles and addresses to the citizens of the State upon educational topics have been largely influential; the judicious management of the Chandler Scientific Department is due to a great extent to his careful advice; and yet perhaps his most effective service may have been found in the daily, quiet, constant labors of the recitation room.

JONATHAN TENNEY.

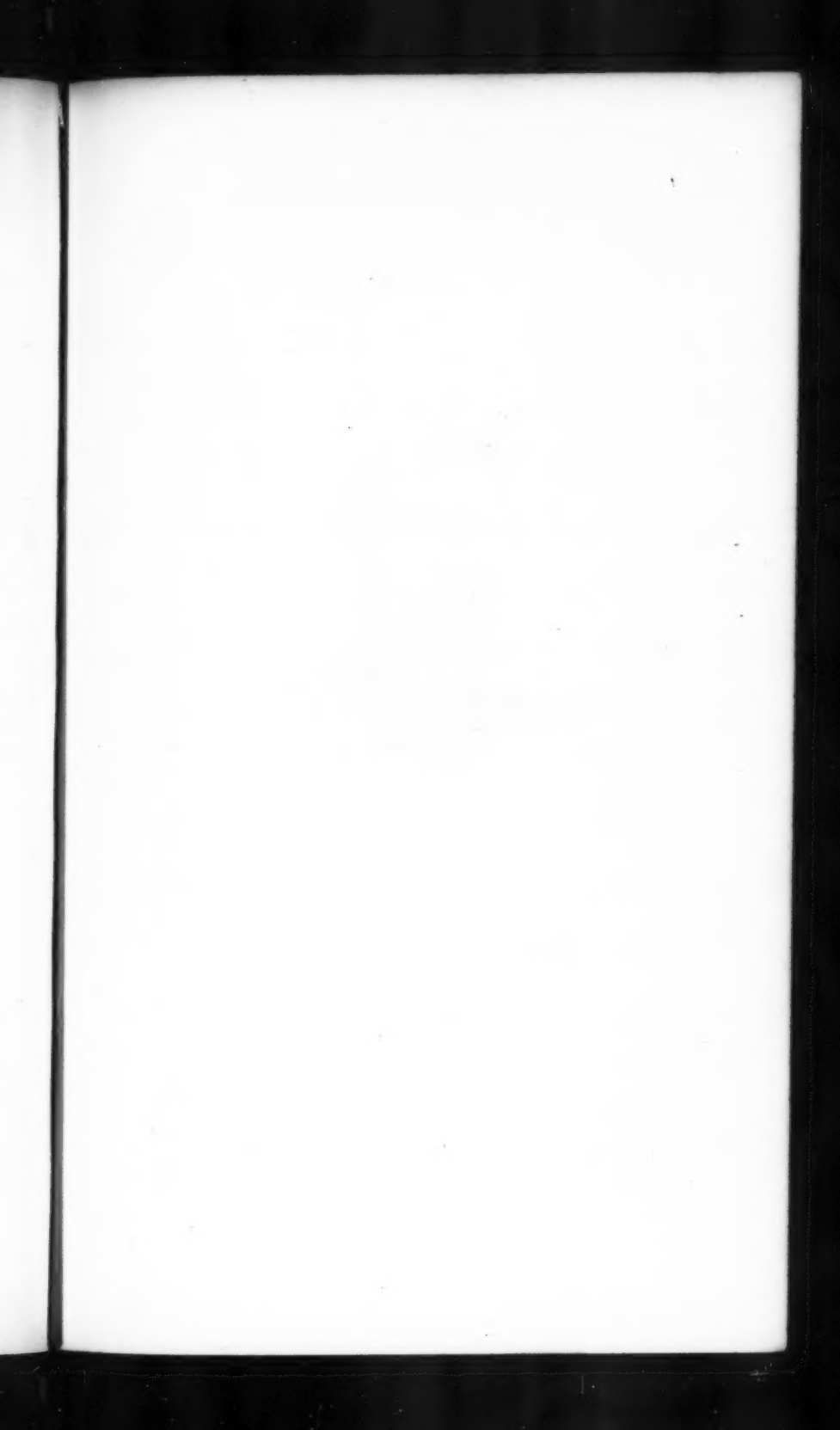
JONATHAN TENNEY was born at Corinth, Orange County, Vt., Sept. 14th, 1817. During his boyhood a diligent student in the district-schools and a busy reader at home, at the age of sixteen he entered Newbury Seminary, Vt., where he continued until his entrance to Dartmouth College in 1839, with the exception of one term at Bradford Academy, and intervals of farm labor and teaching, and a short apprenticeship in a printing office, at Concord, N. H. His labors as a

teacher commenced in 1834, and were continued during the winters until his graduation—the last four schools being in large villages and having an attendance of from seventy-five to a hundred in a single room. After graduating in 1843, he taught for a short time the Academy at Hebron, N. H., but resigned in order to establish a High School at Newbury, which was successfully organized under his care. He was then for five years principal of Pembroke Academy, which attained, under his management, a high reputation and popularity. A portion of his time was here devoted to the study of law, but acquiring a disrelish for legal practice, he adopted teaching as his profession and, from this time, lost no opportunity to extend his acquaintance with the best schools and educators, their principles and methods. A desire for wider experience, a spirit of independent and progressive action, and an unwillingness to become settled in any one routine of thought and action, have induced a frequent change of position by voluntary resignations, and have prompted the undertaking of much collateral work. He has had charge of a Grammar School at Lawrence, Mass., (for which he succeeded in effecting the erection of a new edifice,) the Public High School at Pittsfield, Mass., and the High School at Manchester, N. H., and for the last eight years or more has been sole proprietor and principal of the Elmwood Literary Institute at Boscawen, N. H.

While in Massachusetts he was an active member of the State, County, and City Teachers' Associations, a Vice-President of the State Association, and an associate editor of the *Massachusetts Teacher*. In 1854 he undertook, with great success, the editorship of an independent weekly newspaper. From 1855 to 1857 inclusive he was at the same time Chairman of the School Committee of Manchester, Commissioner of Schools for Hillsborough county, and Secretary of the State Board of Education. His reports in these several capacities were full and able, and models of their kind. During this time he introduced various reforms in the city schools, visited many schools of the State, conducted Teachers' Institutes, and lectured and taught upon various subjects in all parts of the State. In 1854 he was the originator of the State Teachers' Association, and has always been one of its most active and practical workers and supporters. He was elected its President in 1855 and '56, and was, after January, 1862, the resident editor of the *New Hampshire Journal of Education*. He prepared and published in 1853 the first catalogue of teachers and schools that had appeared for any State, and has contributed largely to the educational and other statistics of the country. He is now (1865) Commissioner of Schools for Merrimack county, and member of the State Board of Education.

PROF. E. D. SANBORN.

EDWIN DAVID SANBORN was born at Gilmanton, N. H., May 14th, 1808. Till sixteen years of age he worked upon the farm, attending district-school in winter, and afterwards fitted himself for college at Hampton and Gilmanton Academies, principally the latter, under the excellent instructions of John L. Parkhurst—his studies still alternating with farm-work and teaching. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1832, and the two following years were spent in charge of the academy at Topsfield, Mass., and then of Gilmanton Academy, N. H. Declining a tutorship at Dartmouth, he now commenced the study of law; but soon found it so distasteful that it was abandoned, and in the autumn of 1834, he entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, employing a portion of his time





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Yours truly
Henry E. Sawyer

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in instruction in Phillips Academy. In 1835, the invitation to Dartmouth was repeated and accepted. He was soon after elected professor of the Latin Language and Literature, which office he held until 1859, when he accepted the professorship of Classical Literature and History in Washington University at St. Louis. In February, 1864, he returned to Dartmouth as Evans Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory.

Prof. Sanborn's experience in teaching thus extends through more than forty years and has been associated with nearly all grades of schools and pupils. For twenty-five years he has been a frequent contributor to the public journals and leading reviews, of articles upon social, moral, educational, and religious subjects. He was many years engaged, and among the first, as teacher and lecturer in the Teachers' Institutes of the State; has delivered several lectures before the American Institute of Instruction, and was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1857 and 1858. He has also been for nearly twenty years, Justice of the Peace and Quorum; was for two years a member of the State Legislature, and was elected in 1850 delegate to the Constitutional Convention.

DAVID CROSBY.

DAVID CROSBY was born in Hebron, N. H., Sept. 1st, 1807. From the age of six years till nineteen his education was mainly acquired at the ordinary schools, attending in his own district eight or ten weeks each winter, and then, occasionally, in some neighboring district for two to six weeks longer. In this time he also attended three Fall terms at the academies of Boacawen, Pembroke, and Meriden. It was his earliest ambition to become a teacher, and his determination to gain an education, and he had already commenced teaching in the winter of 1824-5, for nine dollars a month and board around. When nineteen years of age he received his "time," and with one shilling of his own and a dollar borrowed from his father, set out upon foot thirty miles over the hills, carrying all his possessions with him. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1833, and paying all his debts had three shillings remaining, and had thenceforth the satisfaction of being able to tell his pupils that he had tripled his money in going through college. His winters thus far had all been spent in teaching district-schools. After graduation he devoted his whole time to the same occupation, principally in academies, in different localities, until April, 1836, when he became principal of Nashua Academy, in which position he still remains. Mr. Crosby has contributed various articles to the "New Hampshire Journal of Education," and has been an active member of the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1859 and 1860.

HENRY E. SAWYER.

HENRY EDMUND SAWYER was born at Warner, N. H., July 14th, 1826. He attended the district-schools and academy at Henniker for some years, was a short time in the academy at Meriden, and completed his preparatory course in Manchester, graduating in Dartmouth College in 1851. He commenced teaching at Goffstown in 1844, and afterwards taught during the winters at Manchester, Amherst, Milford, and Acworth, in his native State. After graduation he, for two years, had charge of the academy at Franconstown, and after a short interval at Henniker, was elected principal of the Public High School at Great Falls, where he remained until 1857, when he took charge of the Concord High

School. He resigned this position in 1865 and removed to Middletown, Conn., where he had been appointed principal of the High School.

Mr. Sawyer has labored in Teachers' Institutes, and was elected President of the State Association in 1861 and 1862, of which he was, from its establishment, a most active and prominent member, never absent from its meetings, always prompt in the performance of assigned duties. He was Superintendent of the schools of Concord for a year, and was for four years, 1858-61, the efficient editor of the "New Hampshire Journal of Education." During his residence in Concord and mainly through his agency, the public schools were raised to their present high position; new school buildings were erected, of which he furnished the designs; order and system were every where inaugurated, and faithfulness and earnestness, here as in every other position, marked his administration.

CYRUS E. RICHARDS.

CYRUS SMITH RICHARDS, born at Hartford, Vt., in 1808, had but limited advantages for acquiring even a common school education; yet, by an early acquired habit of self-culture and by employing his leisure in diligent study, had, at the age of fifteen, thoroughly mastered the branches of higher arithmetic and English grammar. At the age of twenty, with the design of preparing for the ministry, he entered Kimball Union Academy, and graduated at Dartmouth College in 1835. In the meantime teaching became with him almost a passion and success attended his efforts in the common schools in which he was employed. During his Senior year he was engaged to give instruction in Kimball Union Academy. Immediately after graduation he was elected principal, and becoming convinced that the school was his sphere of usefulness, he has since that period and up to the present time (1865) devoted all his energies most untiringly and exclusively to the interests of that institution and the endeavor to make it second to no other school of the kind in New England. He has secured an unbroken course both in the English and classical departments, has maintained strict and rigid discipline, and has greatly elevated the standard of attainment and scholarship. The average attendance of pupils during the last twenty years has been over two hundred, while the number fitted for college has averaged over twenty-five annually for more than twenty-five years. In 1859 Mr. Richards published an introductory work entitled "*Latin Lessons and Tables*," which is original in its design and has been quite extensively adopted and highly approved. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1863 and 1864.

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

Though by Acts of Congress of 1804 and 1816 provision had been made for a University and schools by the reservation of the sixteenth section and other lands, and though the first Constitution of 1816 required that the General Assembly should establish a system of free schools "as soon as circumstances would permit," yet nothing was done for many years for their establishment or improvement. The University was, indeed, established at Bloomington in 1827, and an Act was passed in 1831, revised and modified in February, 1833, "incorporating congressional townships and providing for public schools therein," but the degree of popular ignorance and destitution of public advantages continued deplorable. This was due in a great measure to the sparseness and heterogeneous character of the population, with a consequent want of sympathy and union of feeling and concert of action. In 1833 an attempt was made to remove this want by the formation of an "*Association for the Improvement of Common Schools in Indiana*," which was organized in March,* and immediately took measures to gather intelligence respecting the actual condition of the country schools. The Board of Directors, finding that the want of competent, respectable and moral teachers was the greatest difficulty to be overcome, determined upon the establishment of a Manual Labor Seminary expressly to prepare young men for teaching, and made arrangements for its being put in speedy operation. A semi-annual meeting of the Society was held at Madison on the 3d of September, 1833, when report was made by the Secretary† and the proceedings of the

* The officers of this Society were as follows:—Hon. William Hendricks, *Pres.*; Hon. Jesse L. Holman, Hon. S. C. Stevens, James Blythe, D. D., Dr. E. F. Pabody, Rev. J. M. Dickey, Hon. Benjamin Park, Hon. M. C. Eggleston, John Matthews, D. D., A. Wylie, D. D., *Vice Presidents*; J. Sullivan, J. W. Cunningham, J. H. Harney, M. H. Wikler, Dr. W. B. Goodhue, Hon. John Ser- ing, Rev. R. Ransom, A. Andrews, C. P. J. Arion, M. A. H. Niles, Hon. Williamson Dunn, James Goodhue, Hon. John Dumont, Rev. S. Gregg, Rev. J. T. Wells, Jesse Marity, *Directors*; Rev. J. U. Parsons, *Cor. Sec.*; Rev. J. H. Johnston, *Rec. Sec.*; Dr. John Howes, *Treas.*

† In nine townships from which a full tabular report was returned, containing about 3,000 children between 5 and 15 years of age, only 919 attended school in 1832, the larger part for three months only. But one in six was able to read; one in nine to write; one in sixteen had studied

directors were approved. The next annual meeting of the Society was appointed to be held at Indianapolis, in December, 1833, during the session of the Legislature, from whom an act incorporating the Society was obtained. The Teachers' Seminary, thus early instituted, was located near the town of Madison and was opened in March, 1834, with five scholars, increased during the session to thirty-six. The plan of the institution embraced, first, a distinct provision for the qualification of school teachers and, secondarily, a scientific course adapted to the wants of practical life. But it was sustained by no permanent fund, its principal was dependent upon the avails of tuition for his support, and its success was, moreover, made conditional upon the practicability of the Manual Labor system. It is not surprising, therefore, that no further record appears of its operations, and the Association appears to have been suspended at the same time.

The next prominent movement was made in January, 1837, when a Convention of the friends of education was held at Indianapolis and an address was delivered before the Legislature upon the subject of common school education by Andrew Wylie, D. D., president of the State University. This address was published and circulated by order of the State Senate. At the same time the publication of the "*Common School Advocate*" was commenced at Indianapolis by Mr. W. Twining, but was soon discontinued. A general convention was again held at Richmond in May, 1841, continuing in session four days. Its proceedings were published in pamphlet form. County Associations were recommended, and shortly afterwards a county convention was called and the Wayne County Educational Association formed, which held several meetings. A still earlier society had, however, been organized at Richmond in 1838, which for eighteen months held its quarterly meetings. James M. Poe and Ebenezer Bishop were prominent members. Though some improvements were made in the school law, it still remained to a great extent inadequate and inefficient, and no general awakening among the people in its behalf was perceptible until 1846. An ably edited semi-monthly paper, the "*Common School Advocate*," was then commenced by H. F. West and did very important service. Local associations were formed in Wayne, Marion, Hendricks and other counties, Teachers' Institutes were established, addresses

arithmetic; one in a hundred, geography; and one in one hundred and forty-five, grammar. In the counties of Washington, Jackson, and Lawrence, with a population of 27,000, only 1,321 attended school in summer, and 2,433 in winter. Moreover, many of the schools in operation were reported as of no benefit to the cause of education.

were delivered by Gov. William Slade of Vermont in the interest of the Board of National Popular Education, and the progressive movements in neighboring states had also their influence. The Legislature which met in December, 1846, made some additional amendments to the school law, and with a view to more decisive and satisfactory action, in response to the suggestion and earnest request of Mr. West, issued a call for a convention of the friends of common school education at Indianapolis on the 26th of May, 1847. About 350 delegates were in attendance; Hon. Isaac Blackford presided; a series of resolutions were passed, after much discussion, expressing the opinions of the convention; a committee, consisting of Messrs. Calvin Fletcher, O. H. Smith, and A. Kinney, were appointed to draft a school law in accordance with the resolutions, and urge its adoption by the Legislature; and a second committee were appointed to prepare an address to the people upon the subject of Common Schools. Provision was also made for a second meeting of the convention in December following and the formation of a "*State Education Society*." The several committees performed their duties, but the bill failed of a passage by the Legislature, and no record is found of the proposed State Society. The next Legislature, of 1848-9, however, passed a Free School Law which went partially into operation, but under the revised Constitution of 1850, an act was approved, 14th June, 1852, "for a general and uniform system of common schools and school libraries," which provided a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, consolidated the School Funds, and inaugurated a more perfect system of common schools, which was again revised in March, 1855.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

County Associations and Institutes had already been the source of much improvement to both teachers and schools in various parts of the State, but no efficient State Society had yet been formed, though the "*Northern Indiana Teachers' Institute*," organized in 1850, had done much for the cause in the northern part of the State. Under its auspices the "*American Educationist*" was commenced in January, 1852, by Albert D. Wright, as editor, but was soon discontinued. In the fall of 1854 a circular signed by a few of the leading teachers was issued, calling for a meeting at Indianapolis for the purpose of organizing a State Teachers' Association. Nearly a hundred teachers accordingly met on the 25th of December, a constitution was prepared by Messrs. E. P. Cole, Caleb Mills, and G. W. Hoss, which was adopted and the organization completed

by the election of the prescribed officers. William M. Daily, D. D., of the State University, was made president. The character and action of the convention is thus referred to by the State Superintendent, Caleb Mills, in his Third Annual Report to the General Assembly :—

"The number and character of the teachers present, their professional antecedents, the zeal and spirit manifested, the exercises connected with its inauguration, the discussions of the occasion, the developed policy and determined purpose of its leading minds to employ the press in the elevation of their profession and the awakening of the public mind on the subject of popular education, are pledges of the earnest reliable character of the enterprise. The interest felt in the perfecting of our school law found expression in several resolutions, respectfully commending to the favorable consideration of the Legislature certain important features, regarded as fundamental and essential to a successful issue. The action of the Association in reference to an Educational Periodical justifies the expectation and authorizes the belief that the next Legislature will find such a laborer in the field, commending himself and his mission to their kind regards."

SECOND ANNUAL SESSION.—At Madison, Dec. 25th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by Caleb Mills, State Superintendent, upon the "*Teachers' Mission*;" and by the President, Dr. W. M. Daily. Reports were received from A. D. Filmore, on "*Vocal Music in Schools*;" from W. D. Henkle, in favor of the use of the Phonetic Method of Spelling in primary schools, which after discussion was referred to a select committee; from G. A. Chase, on "*English Grammar*;" from G. B. Stone, on the "*Study and Teaching of Geography*;" from J. Hurty, on "*Teaching Arithmetic*," with practical class illustrations; and from Prof. Mills, upon the general condition of education throughout the State. A Board of Editors was appointed and arrangements made for the immediate commencement of the publication of the "*Indiana School Journal*," and a committee was appointed to report a memorial to the Legislature in behalf of Teachers' Institutes and Normal Schools. Charles Barnes was elected president.

A regular semi-annual session was held at Lafayette, August 19th, 1856. Addresses were made by the President, on "*Colleges and their relation to Public Schools*;" and by Dr. R. F. Brown, on "*Physical Education, or Relation of the Outer and Inner Man*." Discussions were held upon the subject of the President's address; on "*Free Schools*;" upon a report by J. Hurty, on the "*Duties of the Association in regard to Educational Progress*," and the appointment of a State Agent; upon an "*Increase of the State Tax for School Purposes*;" and upon "*Teachers' Institutes*." A report upon the latter subject was read by J. A. McLane. The meeting was an interesting one. The subject of the School Journal called out con-

siderable feeling, and E. P. Cole was appointed an agent to increase its circulation.

THIRD ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1856. Prof. W. C. Larrabee, State Superintendent, gave an address upon "*Education in Indiana*;" Prof. E. C. Bishop, on "*Phonetics*;" Dr. Hobbs, on "*Physical Education*;" and Prof. White, of Wabash College, on "*Religion and Education*." The principal discussions were upon the subject of proposed memorials to the Legislature, in connection with reports by Charles Barnes, on "*Normal Schools*;" and by J. Hurty, on "*Increased School Taxes and School Terms, County Institutes, and Aid to the School Journal*," and by B. C. Hobbs, on "*District Superintendents*." An able report was presented by Prof. W. Twining on the "*Organization of State Universities*," and also from Mr. Dillon on the "*History of Common Schools in Indiana*." Rev. James G. May, of New Albany, was elected president.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Richmond, August 25th, 1857, and was very largely attended. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Woman's Mission*;" by E. P. Cole, on the "*Educational Condition and Prospects of the State*;" and by Dr. Longshore, on the "*Medical Education of Woman*;" with reports by J. Hurty, State Agent; and by Mr. Hollingsworth, on "*Improvements in the Method of School Government*;" followed by discussions. The subject of "*Normal Schools*" was again discussed, as also that of "*Woman's Wages*," and the expediency of farther memorials to the Legislature. The State Agent reported that County Associations had been formed, old organizations revived, and Teachers' Institutes held in a large number of counties, but the condition of education throughout the State was darkly painted. A committee was again appointed to report upon the school system, with reference to an appeal to the Legislature.

FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1857. Addresses were given by Rev. Dr. Daily, on the "*Study of Language*;" by Hon. G. W. Julian, on the "*Necessity of a Political Education*;" and by Prof. J. D. Butler, on the "*Mission of Colleges*." A large portion of the time of the meeting was occupied in discussing the nomination of a State Superintendent and the necessity of Normal Schools,—action upon the latter subject resulting in measures for holding Teachers' Institutes and for influencing public sentiment in favor of Normal Schools, and the appointment of a committee to receive proposals from different towns for the location of such schools. Barnabas C. Hobbs was elected President.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Terre Haute, July 20th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by the President; by John Young, on "*Mental Development*;" by Hon. R. W. Thompson, on the "*Powers and Defects of the School Law*;" and by J. G. Wilson, on the "*Bible—the Teacher's Manual and the Scholar's Chart*." Reports were read by J. G. Craven, on the "*Educational Wants of the Colored People*;" by the District Committees on Teacher's Institutes; and by E. P. Cole, on the "*Defects of the School Law*." The law under which the city and town schools were organized having recently been declared unconstitutional, in consequence of which many had been closed, committees were appointed to collect information and statistics in regard to such schools, to circulate petitions, and use means to influence the Legislature to increase the school-tax and authorize townships and cities to tax themselves for school purposes.

FIFTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 27th, 1858. Addresses by Prof. A. H. Lattimore, on the "*Historical Origin of Universities and Colleges*;" by Dr. Zaccheus Test, on the "*Character of Socrates as a Teacher*;" and by Prof. Shepardson, on the "*Personal Influence of the Teacher*." The District Committees appointed to conduct Institutes, reported that they had held Institutes in but two Congressional Districts, that there was a great lack of system in the manner of conducting them, and that the course adopted of going through a mere school drill was useless. The information gained respecting the results of the decision of the courts upon town and city schools, went to show that the decision of the court was less at fault than the inefficiency of the law or the lack of interest among the people. A memorial to the Legislature was reported which after much discussion was adopted. Prof. Caleb Mills was elected president.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Fort Wayne, August 23d, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Dr. Myers on "*Human Progress*;" and by Hon. Hugh McCulloch, on "*Education in the United States*." The prominent subject before the Association was the proposed convention for the amendment of the State Constitution, which was warmly debated. An able report was read by O. Phelps in favor of "*Prizes in Schools*," followed by discussions upon the same subject, and also upon the use of the language of the textbook in recitations. W. D. Henkle having resigned the editorship of the "*School Journal*," Mr. O. Phelps was appointed to the place, and Daniel Kirkwood as Mathematical Editor. Under the succes-

sive charge of George B. Stone and W. D. Henkle, the Journal had been now for four years conducted with ability and encouraging success.

SIXTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 26th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by the president, Caleb Mills; and by Dr. Lathrop, on "*Education, and Woman's Rights in the Matter.*" An active discussion arose in regard to what should be done in behalf of the School System, in connection with which was a report by Messrs. G. W. Hoss, Caleb Mills, and T. Hielscher, and a committee was appointed to carry out the measures proposed—to arouse action among the teachers, and by County Associations, County Normal Institutes, and frequent other educational meetings to excite a popular demand for wholesome and liberal legislation in behalf of schools. The Executive Committee were instructed to collect statistical information respecting the educational institutions of the State; the "*School Journal*" was placed in the hands of Mr. O. Phelps as permanent editor and proprietor; and the semi-annual meeting was discontinued. E. P. Cole was elected president.

SEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 26th, 1860. Addresses by the president on the "*Moral Responsibility of the Teacher*;" by J. Baldwin, on "*Normal Schools*;" and by Rev. Dr. Hall, on "*Moral Education.*" An able report was given by G. W. Hoss, on "*Normal Schools*;" also by B. C. Hobbs on "*School Discipline*;" by J. G. May, on the "*Office of School Directors*;" and J. McKee, on "*Vocal Music*;" followed by discussions. Messrs. G. A. Irvine, G. W. Hoss, and Cyrus Nutt were appointed to coöperate with Caleb Mills and S. L. Rugge, the retiring and newly elected State Superintendents, in representing the educational interests of the State to the next Legislature. The chief measures discussed and recommended were the levy of a two-mill school tax, the establishment of a Normal School in connection with the State University, and an amendment to the State Constitution, permitting local taxation for school purposes. Reports were made upon Teachers' Institutes, and the best method of conducting a monthly Teachers' Association was debated. It was stated that the Wayne County Association had held monthly meetings with a single failure for six years. As usual, a teacher was appointed in each Congressional District to have charge of Institutes during the year. G. A. Irvine was elected president. Amendments were made to the School Law by the following Legislature, but the changes chiefly desired by the Association were not effected.

EIGHTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 25th, 1861. This meeting was very largely attended and very ably conducted. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Nature's Plan of Teaching*;" by G. H. Stowits, of New York, on "*Mental Delta*," and on "*Object Teaching*;" and by G. W. Hoss, on "*Educational Progress in the State*." Essays were read by J. B. Mallett, on "*Reading and the Best Methods of Teaching it*;" by Mary A. Vater on the "*Qualifications of the Primary Teacher*;" and by W. H. Venable, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools*." Reports were received from members of the committee appointed to conduct Institutes, and the committee was reappointed. Superintendent Fletcher also made a report upon "*School Architecture*." A special discussion was held upon the subject of the "*Duties of County Examiners*," and Dr. Lewis' New Gymnastics were illustrated by exercises under the direction of R. B. Huff. The conduct of the School Journal was also made the subject of a report and discussion. Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D. D., of the State University, was elected President.

NINTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1862. Addresses were delivered by the president, Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D. D., on the "*Importance of inculcating right principles of Action*;" by W. H. Wells, of Chicago, on "*Orthography and its Representation*," and upon the "*Philosophy of Teaching*;" and by Mr. Venable on "*Phonetic Teaching*;" which were followed by animated discussions. Papers were read by E. J. Rice, on the "*Duty of Teachers in regard to the Health of their Pupils*;" by Hiram Hadley, on the "*Visiting Duties of Examiners*;" also giving rise to debates. Reports of the Institute Committees were received but from four districts. The subject of the pending constitutional amendment, authorizing special local taxes for school purposes, and the best means of securing its adoption by the people, was brought up and resulted in the appointment of Messrs. G. W. Hoss, B. T. Hoyt, and Superintendent Rugg as a committee to prepare an address to the people, and Messrs. S. T. Bowen, T. J. Vater, and J. G. May to coöperate with the Superintendent in securing the passage of the amendment by the Legislature. A resolution was also adopted recommending the appointment of practical educational men to the office of County Examiner by the County Commissioners, whenever practicable. Prof. A. R. Benton was elected president. The proposed constitutional amendment afterwards failed in the House.

TENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 28th, 1863. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Self Culture*;"

and by Prof. H. N. Hailman, of Louisville, on "*Object Teaching*;" and papers were read by G. P. Brown, on the "*Best Method of teaching Definitions*;" and by G. W. Hoss, on the "*Demand for teaching the Principles of our Government in Common Schools*;" followed by discussions upon the same subjects. Resolutions were passed against the use of tobacco by teachers, and recommending the creation of a State Board of Examiners by the Legislature, and the question of the method of appointment of teachers was discussed. Prof. B. F. Hoyt was elected president.

The attendance at the session of the Association had for three years been rapidly increasing and now numbered two hundred and fifty. Reports showed that Institutes and organized efforts upon the part of teachers were progressing, and that the year had been one of material and solid advancement. A "Normal School Society" had been formed, holding "Normal Schools" in different localities and assisted by many of the best educators of the State. During the session of the Association, a Convention of School Examiners was held at Indianapolis, and the two bodies met in joint convention.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Richmond, Dec. 26th, 1864. Addresses by Hon. John Yaryan, on "*Education*;" by Prof. B. F. Hoyt, the president, on the "*Future of American Literature*;" by Hon. E. E. White of Ohio, on the "*Comparative value of Discipline and Facts*;" by G. W. Hoss, on the "*Interests of Public Instruction in Indiana*;" by Rev. O. A. Burgess, on "*Morality in the School Room*;" by Pres. J. F. Tuttle, on a "*Plea for Common Schools*;" and by Gov. O. P. Morton on the "*Need of a State Normal School*." Papers were read by G. P. Brown, on "*Imparting Instruction*;" by Miss Cornelia Crosby, on "*Some of the necessary Qualifications of a good Teacher*;" by J. H. Brown, on "*Reviews and Examinations*;" by Hiram Hadley, on the "*Best Method of teaching Writing*;" by J. M. Olcott, on "*Some of the Means of securing proper Discipline*;" and by W. A. Bell, on the "*Evils of too long Lessons*;" beside the "*Teachers' Journal*," by female members of the Association. Discussions were also held upon the questions of requiring pupils to give information of offenses; to what extent and in what way oral instruction should be given in the several grades of schools; and how to make primary schools what they should be. Reports were made respecting the District Institutes and the State Normal School Institute, to which the Association pledged its aid. Prof. R. T. Brown was elected president.

INDIANA EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

A. R. BENTON, A. M.

A. R. BENTON, President of the North Western Christian University of Indiana, was born in the town of Ira, Cayuga Co., N. Y., on the first of October, 1822. He was at a very early age distinguished by an eager desire for knowledge, and his progress kept pace with the facilities which were freely afforded him. In his later preparatory and collegiate studies, he was especially indebted to the influence and guidance of E. E. Bragdon, principal of Fulton Academy, N. Y., Dr. Alexander Campbell of Bethany College, Va., and Prof. E. J. Conant of Rochester University. He took up instruction at first as affording means and opportunity for acquiring further knowledge, and after teaching for six winters in common schools in the State of New York, removed to Indiana in 1847, and there continued the occupation until habit has made it a lifework and a necessity. After having been engaged for six years with marked success as principal of an Academy, he was appointed professor of languages in the North Western Christian University, and after seven years service in this capacity was promoted to the presidency of the same institution. To an intimate knowledge of the Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages, Pres. Benton has added the study of the French and German, and an extensive acquaintance with both ancient and modern literature, while a taste for metaphysical research, for criticism, and for speculative inquiry has been freely indulged. He has participated largely in educational movements, has delivered numerous addresses before educational associations and lyceums, and has contributed regularly to the *Indiana Journal of Education*. He was elected in 1862 president of the State Teachers' Association, and gave an inaugural address upon the "*Self-Culture of Teachers*," that was very favorably received.

GEORGE W. HOSS, A. M.

GEORGE W. HOSS, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Indiana, was born in a log cabin in Brown County, Ohio, Nov. 6, 1824. With such school instruction as could be got for a few months in each year in very poor district schools in Ohio and Indiana, to which State his father removed in 1836, and with the better moral and industrial training which comes from a diligent and conscientious coöperation in all the labors of the house and the farm, (and this house and farm amid the stumps of a new country,) young Hoss at the age of eighteen began to teach others in a district school and thus earned his own way through Newburg University, in Greencastle, Indiana, where he graduated in 1850. In the fall of 1850 he took charge of an academy, where he continued until 1852, when he became instructor in the Indiana Female College, of which he was elected President in 1856, having for a portion of the

time taught in the State Institution for the Blind, and about the same period entered on the professorship of mathematics in the North Western Christian University of Indianapolis. On retiring from this last position, to become State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Trustees tendered him a formal vote expressive of their appreciation of "the eminent fidelity, industry, and success with which he had discharged the duties of his Chair."

Before his election by the people to the post of Superintendent, in the Fall of 1864, Prof. Hoss had identified himself with the cause of public instruction, by numerous addresses, by an active participation in Educational Institutes, Conventions and Associations, by serving as Editor and Manager of the State School Journal for two years, during which period he had brought up the subscription list from 400 to 1600, and by urging efficient legislation in behalf of schools, such as liberal support of Teachers' Institutes, an efficient system of State Teachers' Certificates, and a State Normal School. As an evidence of the teachers' appreciation of his services, he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in December, 1864.

JOSHUA HURTY, A. M.

JOSHUA HURTY was born in Lowville, Lewis County, New York, August 16th, 1814, of German parentage. His maternal grandfather was Professor of Music and Literature in Germany, and his paternal grandfather held an official position in our Revolutionary War, under General Herkimer. His father was a farmer, and took great interest in the district school, and the education of his children. He gave his son an opportunity to attend a select school kept by a Mr. Brown, and in the winter following he taught his first school at ten dollars a month with such success, that he continued to teach in the winter, and to read and work the rest of the year, until he was twenty-one years old. In the meantime he had read Hall on "*School Keeping*," and began to introduce the experiments suggested by that pioneer laborer. After much experience in teaching, and while preparing for college, he became a pupil of Rev. N. Bull, Principal of the Academy at Clarkson, to whose accurate teaching in Latin and Greek he feels himself greatly indebted. After admission to the Junior Class of Union College, he was obliged to suspend his college studies on account of illness, and on recovery, became principal of the academy at Bethany in 1842, where he taught for two years classes of teachers, and in 1844 held a Teachers' Institute, which continued in session for three weeks. In 1845 he removed to Mansfield, Ohio, where he taught a select school, and held in 1847 a Teachers' Institute, with the assistance of I. J. Allen, and H. Colby. In 1848 a normal class for six weeks was taught by him and others in Newark, Ohio, and in the year following he assisted in organizing the Ohio State Teachers' Association. In 1839 he became principal of the Union School at Zenia, which he conducted with great success until 1855, when he removed to Richmond, Indiana, to take charge of a public high school. Here he became agent of the Indiana State Association, which he had helped to establish. His reputation as an organizer and disciplinarian, causes him to be invited to different places when a beginning is to be made, and he has thus been instrumental in doing great good. In 1862 he was made Superintendent of the Public Schools of Lawrenceburg, Indiana.

MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

ASSOCIATIONS of teachers were formed in Maine as early, at least, as 1835, though the records of their proceedings are but scanty. In that year was organized the "*Teachers' Association of Bowdoin College,*" composed of students of the college who were actually engaged in teaching during the winter vacation, and for their mutual improvement as teachers. It was their custom, besides the meetings during the college term, to hold two public meetings during the vacation at other towns for lectures and discussions upon the business of teaching and the interests of public schools. This Association was maintained for several years, to the manifest benefit of schools and teachers. One of its earliest proceedings was the preparation of an address to parents on "*Reformation in Family Government;*" and an excellent address upon the "*Characteristics of a Good District-school*" was delivered before this Association at Freeport in January, 1837, by Alpheus S. Packard, repeated at N. Yarmouth in December, and afterwards published—as were also other addresses which were delivered at various times.

In the same year, 1835, the "*Penobscot Association of Teachers and Friends of Popular Education*" was formed, of which we have the proceedings of the third meeting, held in Levant, Dec. 27th, 1837. Mr. D. Worcester was at that time acting President, and T. S. Harlow, Secretary. An address was delivered by E. G. Carpenter upon the "*Qualifications of an Efficient Teacher.*" The next meeting was appointed at Bangor, Dec., 1838, when an address was delivered by Rev. Joseph C. Lovejoy. These addresses, together with that of 1836 by S. H. Blake, were published in 1839. A Teachers' Association was also held at Gorham in 1839, and several other County and Town Associations were organized at about the same period.

In October, 1841, and August, 1842, State Conventions of the mechanics of Maine were held at Augusta and Bangor, for consultation upon the welfare and elevation of the class represented by them.

Mechanics' Associations had been formed, during the several years previous, at Portland, Bangor, Augusta, and in several other towns, which had established libraries, procured courses of lectures, held debates, and used other means of mutual improvement and instruction. By far the oldest of these societies was the Maine Charitable Mechanic Association, instituted in January, 1815. Addresses were delivered before the State Conventions by J. S. Sayward, C. H. Holden, F. H. Morse, J. R. Macomber, and others. The general effect of all these society movements was to gradually awaken the public to a sense of the need of an improved system of popular education.

During the years 1837 and 1838 no little complaint had been made respecting the practical working of the common school system of the State, and in the Legislature there was a general feeling that the system was very defective, but no one was prepared to propose a remedy. Gov. Fairfield in his message of January, 1839, suggested the establishment of a Board of Education with an active and efficient secretary, as in Massachusetts, and the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary, which had been projected in 1835 in connection with Gorham Academy. At about the same time the publication of the "*Family and School Visitor*," in which much space was given to the discussion of educational matters, was commenced by Cyril Pearl, who had for several years previous lectured on these subjects before lyceums. On the 11th of February, 1839, during the session of the Legislature, a meeting of the friends of common schools, probably the first of the kind in the State, was held at Augusta, which was addressed by Robert Rantoul, Jr., of Massachusetts. No essential changes were however effected in the school law, though the friends of education still continued their exertions. In 1843 a vigorous effort was again made, and Hon. E. M. Thurston, of the House Committee on Literature and Literary Institutions, reported a bill providing for a Board of School Commissioners. The bill was discussed at length in the House, and the discussion widely circulated through the newspapers gave the first efficient impulse to educational reform in the State. The measure failed in the Senate. In 1845 a similar bill, providing for a Board of School Commissioners, was introduced by S. H. Chase, chairman of the Committee on Education in the Senate, with an able report upon the condition and wants of education in the State, which gave rise to prolonged discussion in both branches of the Legislature, but was finally defeated.

Still undiscouraged, a Convention of teachers and friends of pop-

ular education was held at Augusta in January, 1846, at which lectures were delivered by gentlemen appointed by a committee of a convention that had been held in the previous year, and the defects of the existing system and their remedies were discussed. Unable to arrive at a definite result, the whole subject was submitted to a committee, consisting of Amos Brown, Philip Eastman, A. S. Packard, and S. P. Benson, who should address a memorial to the next Legislature with such suggestions as they might judge advisable. At the May session the memorial was presented and referred to the Senate Committee on Education, of which E. M. Thurston was chairman. By him a bill was prepared, providing for a Board of Education, in accordance with the suggestions of the memorial, which bill was passed by a large majority in July. The election of the members of this Board by the school committees of the towns in the several counties, led to the meeting of a number of County Education Conventions in the fall of this year, and the active exertions of Mr. Thurston, who as provisional agent visited every county, aided very greatly the successful organization of the Board. The next Legislature in accordance with its recommendations, with several other essential modifications in the School Law, made provision for the annual holding of Teachers' Institutes in each county, and in 1847 and until the repeal of the law in 1852, Institutes were annually held in all the counties of the State, under the able direction of the successive secretaries of the Board, W. G. Crosby and E. M. Thurston, with an aggregate attendance of over 9,000 teachers. Out of these Institutes sprung in 1848 Teachers' Associations in several counties and towns.

On the 9th of November, 1853, a State Educational Convention met in Augusta principally for the purpose of the formation of a State Association. Rev. David Thurston was appointed chairman, and A. B. Wiggin, Secretary. A constitution was adopted, and the "*Maine Educational Association*" was organized by the election of the following officers:—J. T. Champlin, *President*. Moses Lyford, S. F. Dyke, and H. K. Baker, *Vice-Presidents*. E. P. Weston and A. B. Wiggin, *Secretaries*. A. G. Dole, *Treasurer*. Resolutions were passed in favor of a permanent Board of "Superintendents of Public Instruction," the establishment of Teachers' Institutes, and of Normal Schools, and Messrs. Prof. J. T. Champlin, Rev. S. Souther, and J. T. Huston, were appointed a committee to petition the Legislature in behalf of those objects. The annual meeting of the Association was appointed to be held on the 18th of January following, but we have no report of any subsequent proceedings and

this first attempt to form a State Association proved a failure. In April, 1854, a law was passed providing for a Superintendent of Common Schools and making appropriations for County Conventions of Teachers, which were annually held without interruption after 1855.

MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

In June, 1858, the Superintendent of Common Schools, Hon. Mark H. Dunnell, commenced the publication of the "Maine Teacher," in which appeared reports of the successful working of many of the County Conventions. In the December number the attention of teachers was again called to the subject of a State Association, and a preliminary meeting was afterwards appointed to be held at Augusta, March 23d, 1859. At this meeting the MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized, a constitution adopted, and the following officers elected:—Mark H. Dunnell, *Pres.* B. D. Verrill, *Sec.* G. W. Blanchard, *Treas.* M. H. Dunnell, B. D. Verrill, G. T. Fletcher, A. E. Buck, and W. T. H. Craig, *Ex. Com.*, and fifteen Vice-Presidents. A discussion followed upon the prospects and aims of the Association.

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.—At Waterville, Nov. 16, 1859. Lectures were delivered by Dr. N. T. True, on the "*Elements of Power*;" by Rev. E. B. Webb, on "*Hugh Miller*;" by Rev. Cyril Pearl, on the "*Teacher's Vocation*;" by E. P. Weston, on the "*Schoolmaster*;" by Isaiah Dole, on the "*Elements of English Grammar*;" by Rev. J. Burnham, on the "*Teacher's Duties and Qualifications*;" and by Walter Wells, on "*Sun Power*." The most prominent subjects of discussion were the best methods of communicating moral and religious instruction, the awarding of prizes to scholars, the study of the natural sciences in common schools, and especially the necessity for the establishment of a State Normal School. Officers elected:—M. H. Dunnell, *Pres.* N. T. True, *Sec.* F. Staples, *Treas.* E. P. Weston, M. Lyford, and R. B. Shepherd, with the President and Secretary, *Ex Com.*

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Lewiston, Nov. 26th, 1860. Lectures from Dr. N. T. True, on the "*Philosophy of Teaching*;" by Ebenezer Knowlton, on "*Muscular Christianity*;" by Prof. J. T. Champlin, on the "*Effects of Education on the Mind*;" by J. D. Pulsifer, on "*Phonetics*;" by Walter Wells, on "*A Working World*;" and by Prof. W. Smyth, on "*Graded Schools*." Discussions were held upon "*Methods of Teaching*," "*Physical Culture*," "*Oral Instruction*," and "*Modes of School Government*," and the subject of a

Normal School was again brought forward. The principal officers were reelected.

The next Legislature, by the "Normal School Act" of March 20th, 1860, repealed the Act providing for County Conventions, and granted appropriations to such of eighteen designated academies as should establish normal classes in accordance with the provisions of the act. After two years' trial, the result was found unsatisfactory, and the Superintendent was ordered to investigate and report with reference to the establishment of a more efficient system. This was followed by the passage of the act of March 25th, 1863, authorizing the establishment of two Normal Schools in the eastern and western parts of the State. The western school was opened at Farmington, Aug. 24th, 1864, and is in successful operation; the location of the second school has been deferred.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Richmond, Nov. 18th, 1861. Lectures were delivered by J. H. Hanson, on the "*Practical in Education*;" by Prof. M. Lyford, on "*Intellectual Culture*;" by Prof. A. S. Packard, on the "*Progress of Popular Instruction*;" and by C. F. Allen, on the "*Characteristics of the Successful Teacher*"—accompanied by discussions upon "*Educational Associations*," "*The relative Importance of different Studies*," "*The Defects of the School Law*," "*Use of the Blackboard*," and the "*True Aims of the Common School*." Resolutions were adopted urging the formation of County Teachers' Associations—in favor of authorizing a uniform series of text-books—and recommending greater attention to physical culture and the encouragement of active amusements. Hon E. P. Weston was elected President, and C. L. Houghton, Secretary.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bangor, Nov. 24th, 1862. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on the "*Relation of the War to Education*;" by Dr. Harris, on the "*General Relations of the Teacher and Taught*;" by Prof. L. Dunton, on the "*Duties of Parents in the Intellectual Education of Children*;" and by Prof. M. Lyford, on "*Methods in Education*." Methods of opening and conducting school exercises were given by M. Pickering and J. M. Hanson of the Portland schools, and discussions were held upon the "*Responsibility for the Failure or Success of Schools*," and "*Modes of Teaching Reading*." Remarks were also made by Messrs. A. P. Kelsey, Noah Woods, and Prof. Briggs upon the more efficient supervision of schools, the appointment of teachers by school committees, and on vocal culture. Class exercises in grammar, arithmetic, and reading were conducted by Messrs. J. E. Littlefield, D. B. Tower, J. F. Rich, and Briggs. A resolution asserting the duty of

the State to provide for the better education of its teachers was discussed and adopted, and action was also taken respecting a change in the management of the "Maine Teacher." Hon. E. P. Weston was reelected President, and A. P. Kelsey elected Secretary.

An adjourned session of the Association was held at Augusta, January 27th, 1863, during the session of the Legislature. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on "*Some Elements of the Teacher's Life*;" by A. P. Kelsey, on the "*Bequests of War*;" and by S. A. Dike, on "*Right Methods in Education*." Discussions were held on the "*Methods of Promoting an Interest in Common Schools*," "*Truancy and its Causes*," "*The Course of Studies in Common Schools*," "*Co-education of the Sexes*," "*The True Position of Academical Institutions*," and on "*Music and Gymnastics in Schools*." Rev. Noah Woods addressed the Association in favor of the speedy establishment of a Normal School, and Rev. Mr. Dudley made a report upon education among the contrabands. Resolutions were adopted, repeating the plea for Normal Schools, recommending the more thorough classification and gradation of schools, advising more attention to political instruction and physical training, &c.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bath, Nov. 23d, 1863. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on "*Extremes in Education*;" and by Prof. Sanborn Tenney, on "*Geography*;" and essays were read by Dr. N. T. True, on "*Relative and Exhaustive Instruction*;" by Isaiah Dole, on the "*Proper Aim in Studying Languages, and the Methods of Teaching*;" by Rev. N. Woods, on "*School Supervision*;" by R. A. Rideout, on the "*General Relations of Teachers and Taught, and Methods of Teaching*;" by Rev. Dr. Sheldon, on "*Proper Incentives to be used in Schools*;" by E. S. Morse, on "*Zoölogy*;" and by J. J. Taylor, on "*School Government*." A report was read by A. P. Kelsey upon Education in other States, and a paper was also read upon "*Schools Sixty Years Ago*." Class exercises were given in gymnastics, arithmetic, and geography. Hon. E. P. Weston and A. P. Kelsey were reelected to office.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Skowhegan, Nov. 21st, 1864. The Secretary, A. P. Kelsey, read a report upon the progress of education in the several States, and upon the successful opening of the Normal School at Farmington. An interesting discussion was held upon the defects of the School Law—in favor of the transference of the duty of employing teachers from district agents to the Town Committees—upon truancy and in favor of compulsory attendance—and upon more efficient means of school supervision. Prof. M. Lyford was elected President, and L. Dunton, Secretary.

MAINE EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

MARK H. DUNNELL.

MARK H. DUNNELL, for three years after its organization President of the Maine Teachers' Association, was born at Buxton, in the County of York, Maine, July 2d, 1823. Brought up upon a farm, with the usual facilities for a common school education, at the age of eighteen he commenced the study of Latin, and after four or five months of instruction in each of the following years, entered Waterville College in 1845. After graduation in 1849, he was for two years principal of the Norway Academy, and then, for three years, of Hebron Academy, in Oxford County.

In 1854, Mr. Dunnell was elected member of the House of Representatives in the State Legislature, and as member of the Committee on Education, was active in promoting the passage of the law creating the office of Superintendent of Common Schools, and County Institutes of Teachers. The next year he was elected to the Senate Chamber, and in March, 1855, was appointed by Gov. Morrill State Superintendent of Schools for that year, to which office he was re-appointed by Gov. Hamlin in 1857. During the four years of his superintendency, the duties of the office required more than seventeen thousand miles of travel into every section of the State. He held annually a County Teachers' Institute in each county, and in Nov., 1859, called the first State Teachers' Convention, at which was organized the present State Association. In June, 1858, Mr. Dunnell established the "*Maine Teacher*," taking upon himself the whole labor and responsibility. It was afterward continued by his successor, Hon. E. P. Weston. Declining a renomination, he in January, 1860, opened a law office in the city of Portland, in company with Stephen Boothby. Mr. Boothby had been a successful teacher and Institute instructor, and as Lieutenant Colonel of the First Maine Cavalry, fell in the Battles of the Wilderness.

Mr. Dunnell remained at Portland till the war opened, when he went as Colonel of the Fifth Maine Volunteers to Washington. Here he participated in the ever memorable battle of Bull Run, but after four months of service was compelled by ill-health to resign his command. Having accepted the consulship at Vera Cruz, he witnessed the surrender of that city to the French in Dec., 1861, but returned in the following year to his native town, where he resided until 1864. He then removed with his family to Winona, Minnesota, where he commenced business again as an attorney-at-law.

EDWARD P. WESTON.

EDWARD PATRON WESTON was born in Boothbay, Maine, January 19th, 1819, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1839. Devoting himself to educational and literary pursuits, he was for thirteen years principal of the well-known Maine Female Seminary at Gorham, which position he resigned upon his appointment as State Superintendent of Schools in January, 1860. This office he held for five years. The enactment of the Normal School Act of the same year was due greatly to his exertions, and he was prominently active in carrying the law into operation, and in effecting the establishment of the first State Normal School, at Farmington. He was editor of the "Maine Teacher" from the commencement of its third volume in 1860 for three years, and had previously edited the Portland Transcript. In January, 1864, he commenced the publication of the "*Northern Monthly*," a literary magazine, which he continued for one year. He was in 1864 elected to the State Legislature, and he was also delegate from the Cumberland County Conference to the National Congregational Council held at Boston in June, 1865. Upon resigning the office of State Superintendent, he became principal of the Abbott School at Farmington, which position he still occupies.

JOHN H. C. COFFIN.

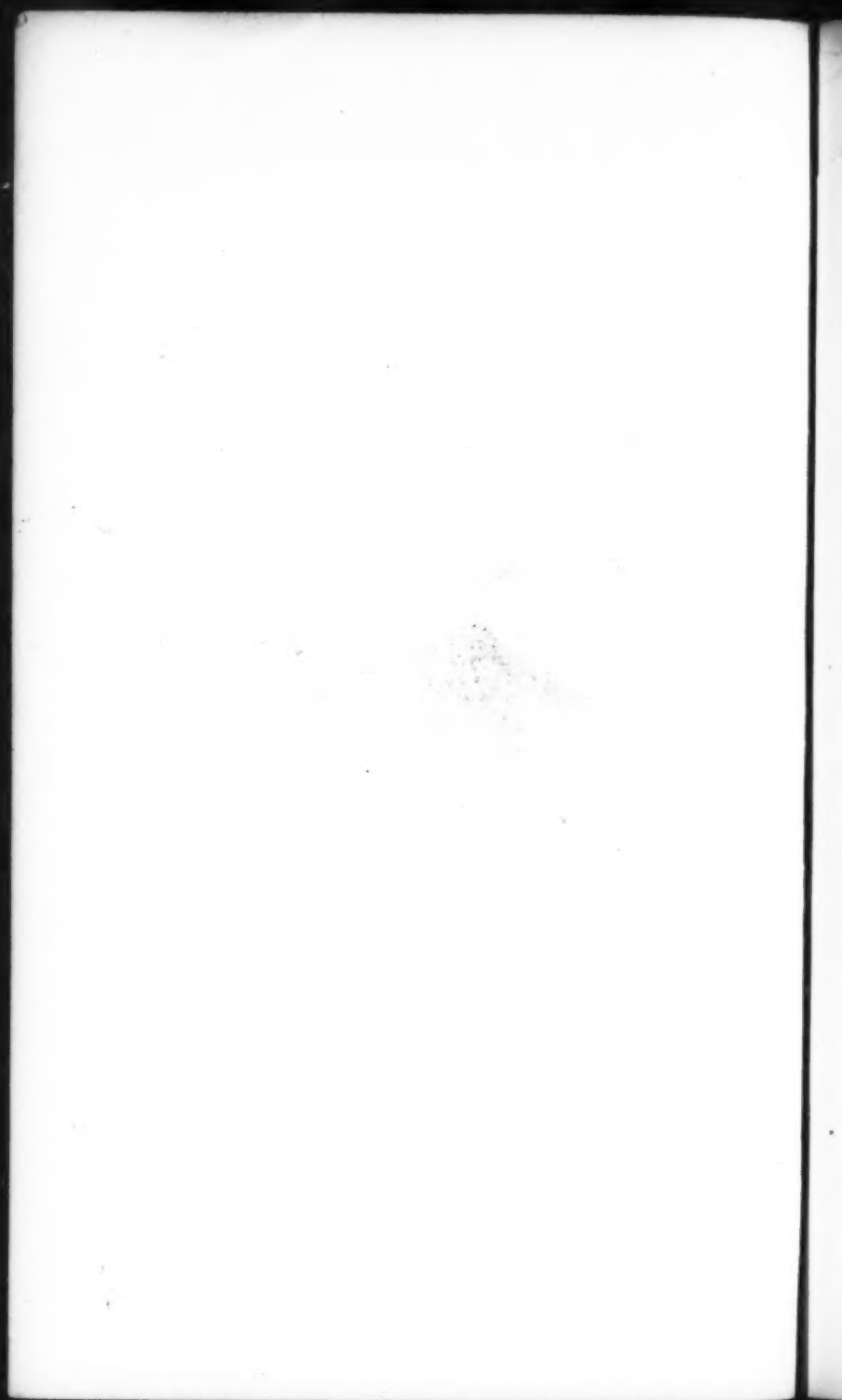
JOHN H. C. COFFIN was born September 14th, 1815, in Wiscasset, Maine, and received his elementary instruction in the town schools, and particularly in a public high school, conducted on the Lancasterian plan by Rev. John L. Parkhurst. Here, as a monitor in every branch of study, he acquired a fondness and facility in teaching, and from a thorough mastery of Colburn's Intellectual Arithmetic, a taste for mathematics, which decided his future studies and occupation. He entered Bowdoin College, Maine, in 1830, and graduated in 1834, the fifth in a class of thirty-four; manifesting specially a fondness for mathematical branches, in which his ambition was stimulated by his brother-in-law, Prof. William Smyth, being in charge of that department of instruction.

In January, 1836, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the Navy, and was employed on board sea-going ships and at the Norfolk Navy Yard, in instructing midshipmen under the old and happily exploded system, and in surveys on the coast of Florida until 1844. From that year until 1853 he was actively engaged at the Naval Observatory in Washington, from which institution he was transferred to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, in charge of the departments of Mathematics, or of Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying, and part of the time of both. In 1865 he was assigned, on the death of Capt. Gilies, to the Astronomical Almanac.



Eng'd by E. S. Perkins & Co. N.Y.

Yours very truly,
Edw. F. Weston



CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE first Educational Association in the State of California was formed by the teachers of the city of San Francisco, in the year 1852, and reorganized in November, 1853. These social reunions of the pioneer teachers of California, gathered from every part of the Union, were exceedingly interesting and instructive, and during the early history of the free-school enterprise, were the means of accomplishing great good in the cause of education. This association was at first attended by all the teachers of the schools, but since the organization of the City Normal School in 1859, it consists only of the male teachers.

The first State Educational Convention was held in San Francisco, December 26th, 27th, and 28th, 1854, on the call of Superintendent Hubbs. Addresses were delivered by Col. E. D. Baker, on "*General Education*;" by Dr. Winslow, on "*The Use of the Bible in Common Schools*;" by Rev. S. V. Blakesly, on "*Phonography in School*;" by Mr. Wells, on "*School Management*;" by Mr. Buffington, on "*Education*;" by Mr. S. Day, on "*The Objects of Public Instruction*;" by Mr. J. Swett, on "*Elocution*;" by Q. C. Morrill, on "*Unclassified Schools*." Discussions were had on the subjects of the lectures, and on "*Teachers' Institutes*," "*School Libraries*," "*The Co-education of the Sexes*," "*Physical Exercise*," &c.

A second State Convention met at Benicia, August 12th, 1856. Essays were read and discussions had on "*The Bible in Public Schools*;" on "*The English Language*;" on "*Thorough Training*;" on "*Corporal Punishment*;" on "*Females as Teachers*;" on "*Moral Ethics in Schools*."

STATE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. A. J. Moulder, in his Annual Reports for 1858 and 1859, had strongly urged the subject upon the attention of the Legislature, and had recommended that the Superintendent should be authorized to hold one or more

Institutes each year, and that an appropriation be made to defray the necessary expenses. The Legislature of 1860 accordingly sanctioned the formation of a State Teachers' Institute, and made a liberal appropriation for its support, and the first "State Educational Convention and Teachers' Institute" was held in 1861 at San Francisco, under the charge of the State Superintendent. The proceedings were published and distributed throughout the State, and did good service in exciting interest and imparting information. The second meeting was held in Sacramento, on the 23d of September, 1862, and continued in session five days. The superintendent in his report says of it:—"The Institute is no longer an experiment. It has more than fulfilled all that the superintendent claimed for it in his first appeal in its behalf to the Legislature. It has imparted vitality to teachers; it has created an *esprit du corps*; it has stimulated the backward to efforts that may place them on an equality with their more favored associates; it has called public attention to their efforts; it has given them a higher place in public estimation, and, by a natural reaction, it has stimulated and promoted the organization of auxiliary Institutes in most of the important counties of the State." The Legislature of 1862-3 authorized the holding of County Institutes, under the direction of the County Superintendents, and made a grant of \$150 to each that should be held.

In February, 1863, the superintendent, Hon. John Swett, issued a circular calling the third meeting of the State Teachers' Institute. In this circular, the superintendent distinctly proposed the organization of a State Society, that should recognize and inaugurate a "*Profession of Teachers*," and he set forth at length and in an able manner the reasons which made such action desirable. He says:—

Why should not the pioneer teachers of this State, in the next Institute, take similar measures of self-organization, self-recognition, and self-examination, and raise themselves above the humiliating necessity of submitting to an examination by members of other professions, or of no professions at all? A "State Educational Society" could be organized by those who shall pass the next examination by the State Board, those who hold diplomas of graduation from Normal Schools, and the Professors in the various Colleges and Collegiate Schools of the State. This society could become legally incorporated at the next session of the Legislature, and other members could be admitted from time to time, by passing a regular examination and receiving diplomas. Such certificates would soon be gladly recognized by unprofessional examiners (many of whom, though men of education, feel that they are not duly qualified to sit in judgment on the competency of teachers for their peculiar work) as the best possible assurance of fitness to teach. And teachers may rest assured that legislative enactments would soon follow, making such diplomas *prima facie* evidence of ability to teach in any part of the State without further examination.

A "State Society" would unite the teachers of our State in the bonds of fraternal sympathy; a certificate of membership would entitle the holder to the aid of members in all parts of the State; it would be a passport of employment when he should change his residence; it would entitle him to the substantial

benefits of an honorable reception among all teachers; and a small annual membership fee would soon constitute a fund for the establishment of a "Teachers' Journal" as the organ of the society.

The Institute met in San Francisco, on the 4th of May, and continued in session until the 9th. This was one of the largest and most enthusiastic educational meetings ever assembled in the United States. Four hundred and sixty-three registered members were present, and the daily sessions were attended by hundreds of others interested in public schools. A course of free public evening lectures were delivered before the Institute by the following lecturers: By Prof. G. W. Minns, on "*Physical Geography*;" by Prof. Whitney, State Geologist, on "*The Character of Alexander Humboldt*;" by Rev. T. Starr King, on "*The Bigelow Papers*;" and by Hon. John Swett, on "*The Relation of the State to Public Schools*." Lectures, essays, and addresses were read during the day sessions by the following gentlemen:—By Prof. S. J. C. Swezey, on "*Normal Schools*" and "*English Composition*;" by Rev. S. H. Willey, on "*The Educational Position and Relations of the College*;" by Theodore Bradley, on "*School Discipline*;" by H. P. Carlton, on "*Object Teaching*;" by D. C. Stone, on "*Grammar*;" by Rev. J. E. Benton, on "*Education*;" by Bernhard Marks, on "*Waste in the School room*;" by Dr. F. W. Hatch, on "*The Need of Good Teachers*;" by J. S. Hittell, on "*Defects in Teaching*;" by John Swett, on "*Common Sense in Teaching*;" by Hubert Burgess, on "*Linear Drawing*;" and by Alnira Holmes, on "*The State Normal School*." The result was highly satisfactory. Aside from all the incidental labors and benefits of the Institute, five substantial facts remained as monuments:—*First*, The establishment of an educational journal, "*The California Teacher*;"—*Second*, The adoption of a uniform State series of text-books;—*Third*, Action on the question of a State tax for the support of public schools;—*Fourth*, A system of State diplomas and certificates;—and *fifth*, the organization of a State Educational Society. The proceedings of the Institute were published in a pamphlet of 166 pages, and an edition of two thousand four hundred copies was distributed among the various school officers of the State. So thoroughly had the work before this Institute been accomplished that it was deemed unnecessary and inadvisable to call another in the following year, and no appropriation was asked for that object.

The fourth State Institute was held at San Francisco on the 19th of September, 1865. Addresses were delivered by Rev. John E. Benton, on "*The State and the School*;" by Superintendent Swett, on

"*The School Law*;" by Charles R. Clark, on "*Geography of California*;" by Prof. Kellogg, on "*A Practical Education*;" by E. Knowlton, on "*Physical Training*;" by H. C. Carlton, on "*Physiology*;" by Dr. W. Ayer, on "*Force*;" by B. Marks, on "*European and American Systems of Education*;" by Prof. S. H. Willey, on "*Moral Training*;" by R. Keeler, on "*Modern Languages in Public Schools*;" by Dr. Lucky, on "*Education*." Discussions were had on these topics, and on "*School Libraries*," "*Ungraded Schools*," and "*Teachers' Life Diplomas*."

These State Institutes have had an average attendance of over 300 teachers, and during the sessions, examinations have been held by a State Board of Examiners, and since 1863 to 1865, 44 State diplomas, 45 first grade certificates, 32 second grade, and 50 third grade certificates have been granted.

CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

One of the results of the Institute was the formation of the CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY, in accordance with the principles set forth in the circular of the Superintendent. The subject was referred to a committee, who through its chairman, Theodore Bradley, of San Francisco, made a preliminary report which resulted in the appointment of a meeting to be held May 9th, 1863. All gentlemen who favored the organization of a professional society of teachers were invited to be present. This meeting was held in San Francisco, and was adjourned from week to week for discussions of the various points that arose in preparing a constitution for the proposed society. On the 6th of June, the society was finally organized by the adoption of the following preamble and constitution, and by the election of officers:—

PREAMBLE.

We, as teachers of California, in order to further the educational interests of the State, to give efficiency to our school system, to furnish a practical basis for united action among those devoted to the cause in which we are engaged, and, for those purposes, to elevate the office of teacher to its true rank among the professions, do hereby adopt the following

CONSTITUTION.

1. This organization shall be known as the "*California Educational Society*."
2. The qualification of members shall be: a good moral character; three years' successful experience, one of which must have been in this State; and ability to pass a thorough examination in Reading, Spelling, Penmanship, Drawing, Object Teaching, Geography, Grammar, History, Arithmetic, Algebra, Physiology, and Natural Philosophy.
3. This society shall consist of male members only.
4. All male graduates of State Normal Schools in the United States, who have taught three years previous to their application for admission to this society, and

who are residents of this State, and all male holders of State Educational Diplomas, as provided by the laws of California, shall be eligible to membership upon the recommendation of the Examining Committee.

5. Each member, upon his election, shall sign this Constitution, and pay into the treasury the sum of ten dollars.

6. Honorary membership may be conferred upon any gentleman eminent for literary attainments, or for successful service in the cause of popular education, upon the recommendation of the Examining Committee, and a two-thirds vote of the members present at any regular meeting.

7. Any member may be expelled for unprofessional conduct by a two-thirds vote of members present at any regular meeting; *provided*, that a copy of the charges be deposited with the Recording Secretary at least four weeks before the meeting at which the charges are acted upon, and immediate notice thereof be given to the accused.

8. The officers of this society shall be a President, two Vice Presidents, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treasurer, who shall be elected by ballot at a regular annual meeting, and shall hold their offices for one year, or until their successors be chosen.

9. The duties of the President, Vice Presidents, Recording Secretary, and Treasurer, shall be the same as those usually devolving upon such officers. The duty of the Corresponding Secretary shall be to conduct the correspondence of the society under the direction of the Executive Committee.

10. There shall be an Executive Committee which shall be composed of the officers of the current year, together with five other members of the society, to be elected at each annual meeting, and to hold their offices for one year.

11. There shall be an Examining Committee of three members, who shall be elected out of six members nominated for that purpose by the Executive Committee: the three nominees having the highest number of votes to be considered elected.

12. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to manage the general business of the society, to examine the accounts of the Treasurer, and audit all claims upon the treasury. It shall be the duty of the Examining Committee to inquire into and determine upon the qualification of candidates for membership, and to report to the society at its next regular meeting.

13. All voting upon admission to the society, or upon matters pertaining to the provisions of this Constitution, shall be by ballot.

14. A two-thirds vote of members present at any regular meeting shall be sufficient to elect a candidate proposed by the Examining Committee.

15. Members may vote either in person or proxy; *provided*, that the proxy be made known in writing to the Recording Secretary.

16. There shall be a regular annual meeting of the society on the third Saturday of May in each year, in the city of San Francisco, or at such other time and place as may be appointed by the President with the consent of the Executive Committee; but in case a quorum be not present at that time, the officers shall hold over another year, or until their successors be chosen.

17. There shall be a meeting of the society at least once in three months, for the purpose of promoting the interests of education in all its departments. The exercises at these meetings may be determined by the President in conjunction with the Executive Committee.

18. No political or sectarian discussions shall be allowed in the meetings of this society.

19. Assessments may be made from time to time at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of members present.

20. Every member of this society shall be entitled to a diploma in such form as the Executive Committee shall decide upon, and under the official seal and signature of the society; but no diplomas shall be issued to honorary members.

21. After the close of the second annual meeting of this society, this Constitution shall not be altered or amended, except by a vote of three-fourths of the members present at an annual meeting, and after one month's previous notice in the "*California Teacher*," or some other suitable medium.

OFFICERS.

Officers were elected, as follows:—John Swett, *President*. T. S. Myrick and D. C. Stone, *Vice Presidents*. T. C. Leonard, *Corresponding Secretary*. Bernhard Marks, *Recording Secretary*. J. C. Pelton, *Treasurer*. The officers of the society and Messrs. S. J. C. Swazey, James Stratton, A. E. McGlynn, S. A. White, and A. H. Goodrich, *Executive Committee*. Messrs. John Swett, George Tait, and T. C. Leonard, *Examining Committee*.

Superintendent Swett, in his report for 1863, thus concludes his notice of it:—"The society already numbers thirty members. It is intended to make it strictly a *professional society* by admitting to membership only teachers of approved ability, scholarship, and experience. Its object is to make the *occupation* of teaching a *profession*; to discountenance quacks and empirics; and to make the influence of the teachers of the State felt as an organized body. When it shall have gained strength by numbers, it will ask of the Legislature that its professional diplomas shall be considered as licenses to teach in any part of the State without further examination. It stands as the first professional society organized on such a basis in the United States."

JOHN SWETT.

JOHN SWETT was born in Pittsfield, N. H., July 31st, 1830. Besides the district school he attended the academy in his native place, and subsequently the academy in Pembroke, N. H. His professional training as a teacher he received at Merrimac Normal Institute, Reed's Ferry, N. H., under the direction of Prof. William Russell, with whose services in the cause of education our readers are well acquainted.

Mr. Swett emigrated to California in 1852, and for some time devoted his attention to mining and agricultural pursuits, till opportunity presented itself for entering on occupation more congenial to his tastes and habits. We find him accordingly established, ere long, as principal of Rincon Point School, San Francisco, where his pioneer labors for ten years were attended with such distinguished success as to lead to his appointment as State Superintendent of Public Education in 1863.

He has taken an active interest in the educational conventions, institutes, and associations which have been from time to time held and formed in California. To him the State Teachers' Institute, with its system of State examination and diplomas of proficiency to candidates for teaching, and the California Educational Society, are largely indebted for their organization and efficiency. His administration of the system of public schools has been marked with vigor and progress, and the Revised School Law prepared by him is a model of codification for this department of public legislation.

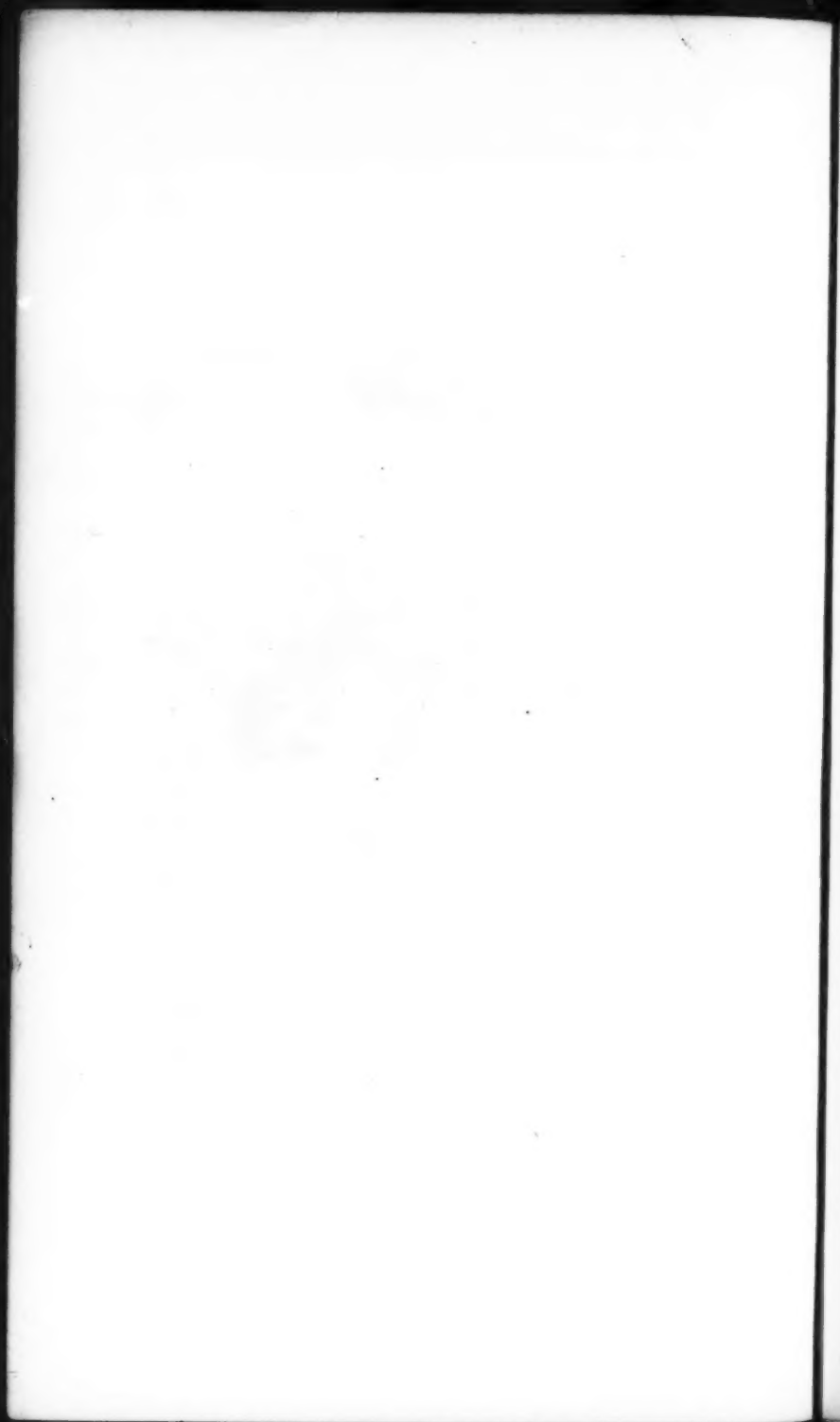




Engraved by John Gordon, Phil^a

HON. JOHN SWEETT.

Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of California.



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